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SECONDARY-SCHOOL  
PRINCIPALS**

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**Proceedings of the  
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of the National Education Association

**MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.**

**February 27, 28, and March 1, 1933**

*Published by*

**THE DEPARTMENT OF  
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION**

**H. V. CHURCH, *Executive Secretary***

**3129 Wenonah Avenue, BERWYN, ILLINOIS**





Proceedings of the  
Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the  
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*of the*

National (Education) Association *of secondary-school*  
" *at principals.*

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

*on*

February 27, 28, and March 1, 1933



Edited by  
H. V. CHURCH  
Secretary of the Association

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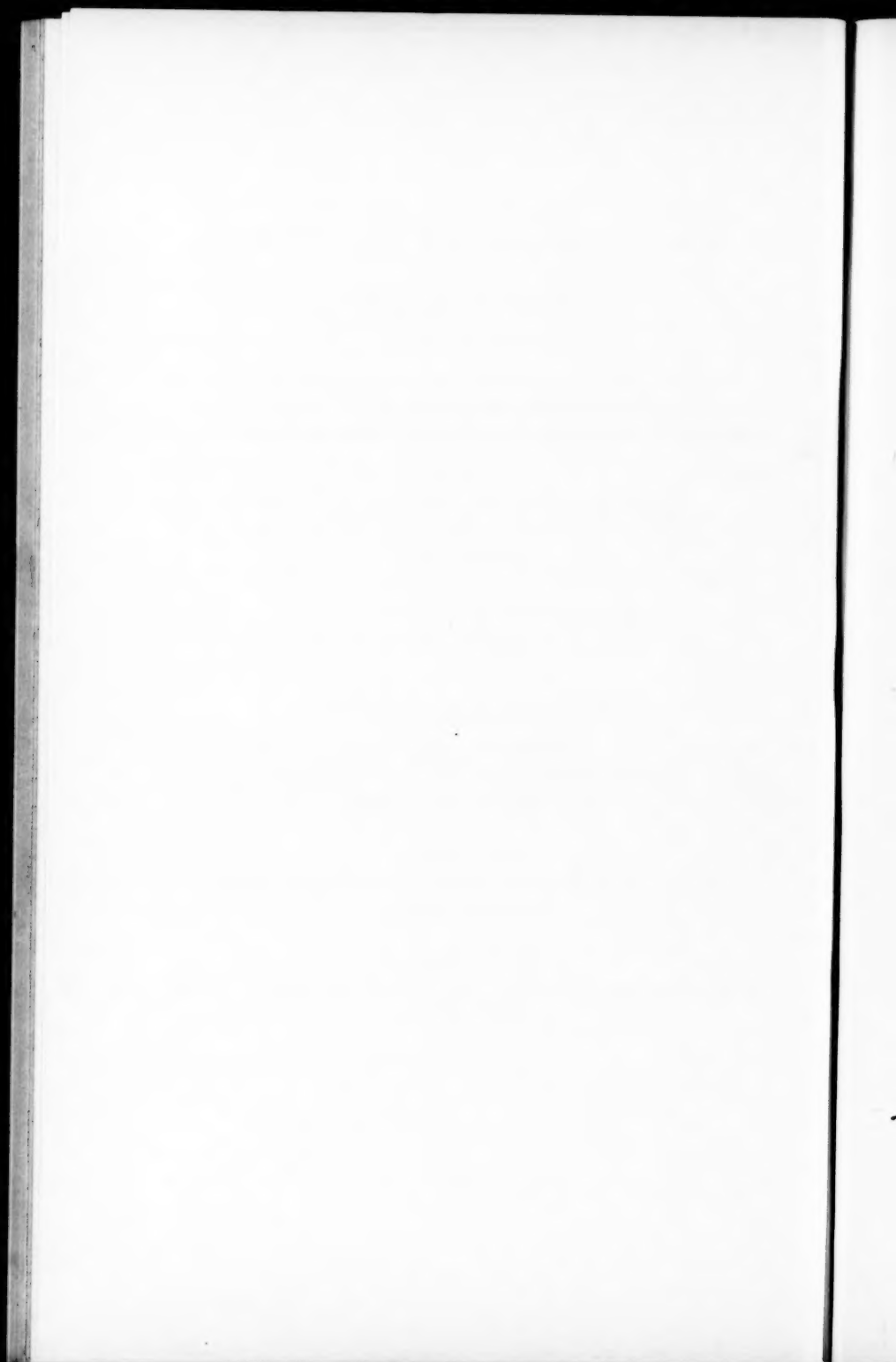
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SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION  
of the  
Department of Secondary-School  
Principals  
of the  
NATIONAL EDUCATION  
ASSOCIATION

The seventeenth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals met in Minneapolis, Minnesota, on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, February 27, 28, and March 1, 1933.

THE GENERAL SESSION

The first session of the seventeenth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals was called to order by President W. W. Haggard, Superintendent of Joliet Township High-School and Junior College of Joliet, Illinois, at 1:50 P. M. in the Ball Room of Leamington Hotel, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

The President at once introduced Charles H. Judd, Dean of School of Education, University of Chicago, who read his paper, *In Defense of American Secondary-Schools*.

IN DEFENSE OF AMERICAN SECONDARY-  
SCHOOLS

CHARLES H. JUDD,  
University of Chicago.

Some months ago I went into a third grade and found the teacher and pupils engaged in a drama which was staged for the purpose of teaching children how to cross a street. In my

boyhood, crossing a street was not an adventure. I can imagine the unbridled mirth which would have been released in 1880 if someone had suggested in a meeting of a citizens' committee on taxation that pupils in a third grade, or any other grade, be taught in school how to cross a street. It is true that the casualty insurance companies of this country, controlled and directed by hard-headed leaders of the modern industrial system, are willing to spend a very respectable sum of money each year to carry on a vigorous propaganda for the introduction of safety education into schools. These leaders when they are thinking about humanity—and the profits which come to casualty insurance companies as a result of the lengthening of human life—are filled with pride at the statistics which show the decline in accidents in those cities where safety education has flourished. Of course, when these same leaders sit on citizens' committees on taxation, they abhor all "fads and frills" and, forgetting for the moment that it was they themselves who pushed safety education into the curriculum, join in an angry chorus of protests against the teaching of anything except the three R's which they solemnly declare to be the only really legitimate contents of instruction in the good old American citizenship school.

I am not here to advocate either the introduction of safety education into the curriculum or its withdrawal from the schools. I am merely trying to find words of one syllable which may possibly appeal to the hysterical bankers and business men who are engaged in these troubled times in closing up the schools while they do something which they call saving the credit of cities, and states, and the nation. The schools did not breed the children nor did they make the streets of our cities unsafe for pedestrians.

As a student of psychology, I am interested in arriving at a formulation of the facts about crossing the street which can be employed as a generalization applicable to all education. In earlier times, crossing a street was comparatively safe for a normal individual because all of the factors were fully recognized and clearly understood without any training except

that which came from ordinary experience. A child can see a horse approaching and can readily understand the rate of movement at which the horse is coming, because a horse is in the same general class with respect to speed as human beings themselves. Not only so, but the approach of horses coming from two different directions makes no over-exacting demands on a child's attention, because the whole panorama unfolds at an easily perceived rate. The modern mechanical age has banished horses. It almost seems at times as though it were in process of banishing human beings. Powerful mechanical contrivances come careering down the street at a rate which is incomparably more swift than the movements of any human being. The commonplace perception of earlier years must be elaborated into a more highly organized kind of knowledge. Ordinary experience will no longer suffice. Children must be explicitly taught.

Let us think of some other examples which will equally well fit our generalization. When the American army engineers arrived in Havana during the Spanish-American War, they found the sanitary conditions primitive and inviting of all kinds of contagion. The city was hardly more advanced than a rural settlement. The explanation of the situation was to be found in the familiar fact that human beings tend to follow habitual modes of behavior and practices of life long after the conditions have changed under which the habits were formed. Urban life with its congestion produces wholly artificial conditions of human existence. Though the change from rural to urban life is very radical, it may be entirely overlooked by individual citizens who are busy with their own petty affairs. Such was the case in Havana. The city needed to be cleaned up. The lives of its people were endangered by neglect. What did the American army engineers contribute to the situation? The answer is that they brought to Havana modern science. In so doing, they not only changed the physical conditions; they changed the mental attitudes of human beings. Sanitation is both a mode of life and a mode of thought and volition.

Another example of our generalization is to be seen in the difficulty which American society faces in revising governmental organizations. The year 1933 sees American communities governed by constitutions and laws which belong to an agrarian period which was long ago superseded by modern industrialism. The number of separate taxing and expending jurisdictions which infest the land can be understood only by going back in one's thinking to the era when people lived in small communities, when all the leading citizens were personally acquainted with one another and with the various degrees of one another's integrity or otherwise. Government in those days was not in business. Indeed, government was of minor importance. To-day all is different. The economic relations of men to one another are so intricate and so much in need of regulation that vast governmental services have been organized which our forefathers never knew or imagined to be possible.

The president of the Department of Secondary-School Principals suggested that I speak in defense of the high-schools. As I set myself to the task of preparing for this occasion, I came to the conclusion that it was more in keeping with the demands of the times that I prepare a defense of modern society. The ultimate safety of the social order depends on the training of citizens to a level where they will be able to cope with the complex problems of a highly elaborated civilization. Common sense is a very good basis for successful life, but it is primitive as contrasted with trained intelligence. If the time ever comes when society closes up its higher schools, the demands on intelligence will have, also, to be reduced.

Anyone who reviews the history of civilization notes that there was a time when there were no schools. That was in the day when man lived very near to nature; when he gathered his food with his own hands; when he found shelter in the natural protections of rocks and woods; when he depended on favorable climatic conditions to make possible his comparatively helpless existence.

When natural living gave way to early industrial organization, even though that organization was of a simple type, the need for instruction in the arts began to be recognized. Schools became a part of society's machinery of self-preservation.

It is interesting in contemplating the facts with regard to the earliest schools of Europe to observe that those schools were of the higher type. Universities antedated the secondary-schools, and secondary-schools antedated schools for the common people. The interpretation of this priority of higher and secondary education is that society found it at once extremely desirable and very difficult to pass on its highest forms of knowledge. A school is a social agency for the transmission of the intellectual inheritance of the race.

The common school was not thought to be necessary in the days of the medieval university and of the early secondary-schools because the humbler members of society were surrounded by very simple conditions of life. They were serfs. They never moved away from the narrow confines in which they were born and brought up. They were told what to believe about their souls, about their rulers, and about their future lives. They were encouraged to do as little thinking for themselves as possible.

Education in the medieval world was the privilege of the few. Only the few were allowed to come in contact with the experiences that transcended the humdrum of common life.

Civilization moved on, and it became evident that the common people must be admitted into some of the broader spheres of experience. The common school came into being, but at first this common school was hemmed in by restrictions dictated by an hereditary aristocracy. The common school taught reading and numbers, because the conditions of life had grown complicated to the point where reading and number were indispensable to community existence.

Somewhat later the common people were allowed to study geography and history. Geography and history are danger-

ous subjects when opened to the common people. The insights gained by the study of these subjects are likely to change complacent serfs into enthusiasts for democracy.

Finally, when society took the next step and created a civilization in which everyone has a right to share in the secrets of science, there was no turning back. Can anyone doubt that present-day civilization has become so complex that some knowledge above the mere rudiments is the right of every individual?

In 1930, I made a study of what industry itself requires of those who apply for the privilege of employment. I took account of the demand made by fifty-one large industries on applicants for admission to positions in these industries. These fifty-one industries employed people in 190 different kinds of positions, ranging from positions filled by experts, such as engineers, to lowly positions, such as those of messengers. For admission to sixty-five of the 190 types of positions, industry demanded graduation from high school or, in some cases, even more—graduation from college or professional school. Thirty-four more of the 190 kinds of positions required a minimum of two years of high-school education. In other words, approximately one-half of the types of positions called for education beyond the elementary grades.

I have not spoken, up to this point, of any of the personal ambitions which drive men and women to desire insight into the facts revealed by science and the ideas recorded in literature. I have not spoken of the hopes which parents entertain that they may be able to provide for their children experiences broader than those which surrounded their own early lives. I have held to strictly objective facts. I have said of education that it grows in scope with the growth of industry and with the increasing complexity of life.

It would be an interesting calculation to try to make a strictly mathematical estimate of the amount of education needed to equip one for life in a given era. Think, if you will, of life in the time of Martin Luther. Remember that he and his associates plead with the burgomasters of German towns

to open schools for the common people. He had translated the Bible into the vernacular and was the leader in the movement to liberate the religious thought of the people by training them to read. All this happened more than 300 years before there was any thought of those devices of communication which have brought all parts of the world into telegraphic communication with one another and made it possible for the common man to know as soon as they happen the doings of remote nations. If mere learning to read can be thought of as requiring, say, three years of schooling, is it not evident that the complexities of modern life create a demand for four times as much schooling as was thought necessary at the time of the Reformation, 400 years ago?

There is one characteristic of modern American society which makes the cultivation of higher forms of intelligence absolutely essential to individual success and to the continuation of the social system. That characteristic is to be seen in the rapid pace at which changes take place in industrial processes. For long generations the methods of production in agriculture and manufacturing were fairly stable. In the older civilizations, sons followed in the callings of their fathers and employed the methods which had long been known to the older generations. With an acceleration which baffles the imagination, new materials have come into use in industry and new processes of dealing with these materials have been invented. It is utterly futile to attempt to anticipate to-day the forms of behavior which will be essential to personal success in the years of the future. Modern education must cultivate adaptability. What is taught must be in a form which suggests intelligent readjustment.

Psychology has made it clear that habitual repetition of an act demands very little use of the mind. Even acts of skill may become so fixed by mere repetition that they do not call for the supervision of consciousness. The moment a habit has to be readjusted in order to fit behavior to a new situation, intelligence comes into play.

The implications for education of the principle of psychology which was stated in the last paragraph are so ap-



parent that no extended discussion of them is necessary. The minds of pupils must be exposed to a sufficient range of experiences to insure the cultivation of mental agility and adaptability. I have no doubt that proper organization of education, even in the lower grades, can contribute much to the development of a type of intelligence which will avoid the limitations that come from mere routine drill, but it seems clear in the light of long experience with pupils that the range of intellectual contacts which is essential to the production of adaptability of a high type can be provided only through education of secondary grade.

Now and again one hears the question seriously raised whether society can support free secondary education. I find the answer to this question in such considerations as I have attempted to present. Little children have to learn to read and write; they have to find out something about the world in which they live through the study of geography and history and literature before they can begin to acquire ideas regarding public sanitation and proper organization of government. It takes long years to develop those mature attitudes toward the world which will prepare one to reajust successfully one's ways of life to the demands of a complex and changing social order. I firmly believe that general secondary education is a necessary corollary to the development of a progressing civilization.

I have made no effort up to this point to meet the objections which are sometimes voiced against the particular forms of secondary education exhibited in American school systems. I certainly shall spend no time in attempting to answer the charge that our secondary schools are to be censured because they are not like the secondary schools of the old world. I have listened with you to the unfavorable comments of recent writers and speakers who have been harsh in their judgments about high schools. I sometimes wish it were not beneath the dignity of such an occasion as this to express in appropriate profanity my contempt for anyone who, seeking a little cheap notoriety, indulges in billingsgate about American secondary schools. It is just because civilization



has never before reached the level of requiring a general secondary education that there are no precedents for our schools to follow. It is just because civilization is itself a vast experimental undertaking that its progress is beset in schools, as in all other phases of life, by hazards. It is not a confession of criminal neglect frankly to admit that American secondary schools have made some mistakes. In the haste to meet new demands, in the striving to keep pace with the progress of modern times, the schools of this country have been obliged again and again to try devices which require time for their refinement. We adopted many years ago a plan of unitary school organization. We fitted our secondary schools to our elementary schools and made a system in which continuous progress was made possible. Europe is to-day experimenting with a unit school organization. The democratic tendencies which have taken possession of even the oldest civilization are driving many nations to imitate the model which we have in some measure perfected. If our unit system had imperfections and has to-day imperfections which we are trying to correct by organizing our junior high schools and our junior colleges, why should anyone say of us that we have grossly failed?

We have enlarged and extended our curriculum. We have tried the experiment in some school systems of putting an elaborate secondary-school program under a single roof in comprehensive or cosmopolitan schools. We have tried in other school systems the experiment of building separate technical high schools, commercial high schools, and academic high schools. We have conducted school surveys and spoken frankly of the defects and virtues of our various forms of organization. We now note with interest and some satisfaction that in England and Germany school authorities are struggling with exactly the problems which we have tried to solve by offering differentiated programs of instruction for pupils of different abilities and different outlooks. Is it a crime to have experimented with commercial courses and technical courses and reorganized general courses? Is the balance of successes so small in the estimation of our critics that they have no pride in our pioneer achievements?

I could go on asking questions such as the foregoing, which I do not think our critics have even thought of intelligently, but I must leave them to their folly. I have one more enemy which I wish to attack in defense of American secondary education with all the strength that I can command.

There are in the United States public officials who prostitute the schools for personal gain. We have all of us witnessed from time to time the ugly spectacle of a board such as that of the J. Sterling Morton High School of Cicero, Illinois, which works its evil will on an institution that has been meeting the demands of civilization steadily, energetically, and faithfully for many years. Our political system is such that there seems to be no remedy for misuse of public office such as that exhibited in such cases. In this particular instance, the State Department of Public Instruction of Illinois has stood supinely by and allowed the program of maladministration to go on its way. It even officially recognized the school. I am far less concerned about the mistakes which have been made in our construction of the secondary-school curriculum, about our blunders in organization, about our shortcomings in teaching than I am about a social system which is impotent in the face of direct affront to American civilization. If our profession cannot find some way to eliminate political corruption from the management of secondary-schools, then are we, indeed, guilty of criminal inefficiency?

The defense of American secondary-schools will in the long term of years be supplied by American civilization itself. There is no possibility of a social order such as that in which we live without general popular education of an advanced type. The only reason why it is urgent that this defense be undertaken now is that generations of young people pass with the passing years. Each delay in the evolution of our secondary-schools entails a loss which cannot be repaired. Ultimate success of American secondary education is as sure as the continuance of our national life. Immediate defense of the secondary-schools of the United States against serious retardation of their development depends on the efforts of all of us to im-

prove the schools in their internal operations and to make clear to the people of this country the relation of secondary-schools to modern civilized life.

State Commissioner of Education, E. W. Butterfield of Hartford, Connecticut, followed with his paper on *The State and Its High-Schools*.

## THE STATE AND ITS HIGH SCHOOLS

E. W. BUTTERFIELD,

Commissioner of Education, Connecticut

Years ago I attended my first high school graduation and I was tremendously impressed with the dignity and meaning of this scholastic spectacle; so impressed that after all of these years I can to-day recall the name of each member of that class. However, this is not a boast of an unusual power of memory. There were but four members of that class. Thirty-five years later I was called back to this same school to give the address at commencement. The town had about doubled in size and this would foretell a class of eight. No, not so many, for the doubling had come from the incursion of mid-Europeans, who in the nineties sent no children to the high school. So a class of six might have been expected. Actually, there were seventy-four. My niece was one of them, the handsomest girl in the class, but not the valedictorian. His name was not colonial, but ended in "ski." I found that industrial village immensely proud. It was an educational center. It had doubled and redoubled its high school enrollment. It led in education.

Since then I have been in the high school in San Diego, a young university, and the people of that city are confident that nowhere else in America has such educational progress been made. I have been in the Coolidge High School in Rapid City, South Dakota, and found the city justly proud of its high school and certain that through its growth the state of sunshine will continue to lead the nation. I have been also in the high school in Macon, Georgia, and Macon as it views its

groups of clear-eyed, active high school pupils believes itself destined to be the Athens of the South. Each of these cities and a thousand more has the impression that it has outstripped the country and that its high school accomplishment is a unique one.

This is not the case. The movement is not a local one. It stretches from Gulf to the Great Lakes and impinges upon the two oceans. Four million young people are now in our high schools.

**This Second Educational Period.**—This educational movement is very similar to the educational revival, with which the names of Mann and Barnard are indissolubly related and which was at its height a century ago. That revival came through the common acceptance of the belief that all knowledge of practical and civic use must be made available. To-day the same principle is accepted, but much more knowledge is available than in 1833 and much more is needed. In 1833 to read, to write, to understand the capital laws, to keep accounts and to localize an isolated geography and a detached history was all that was commonly available, and eight school years were sufficient. In 1893 to these foundations must be added the conventions whether in science, health, history, or communal life that join together a complex society; more knowledge available than in 1833, more of it daily needed, and twelve years not too much for its acquisition. Wells has pointed out the race which civilization runs with catastrophe and many have feared that of late catastrophe has been gaining. If it has been gaining, it is because knowledge has gone faster than understanding and science faster than common acceptance.

**Three Questions Answered.**—Three stages have marked the development of our high schools and three questions in succession have been answered. Shall high school education be free, was the first. And by 1860 the answer was clearly in the affirmative, for in many cities and in some states legal enactments made possible the establishment of high schools as open to the residents as were the elementary schools. Shall high schools be free, had been answered.

Shall high schools be public, was next asked, and by 1890 again there was agreement. The contest between high schools and academies had been won by the former. All towns must offer high-school opportunities or must pay for them elsewhere. High-school education had become a privilege which might be claimed by all children.

The final question has been, shall high schools be common schools? That is, schools for educating all children fourteen to eighteen years of age, or schools only for college preparation and for training for certain occupations. Since 1920 the high-school has become in effect a common school—and no title is more honorable—for all young Americans.

**Can We Afford The High School.**—After every great movement, financial or otherwise, as it came after the educational revival of 1833, there comes a period of attack, retrenchment and readjustment. We are at this point now.

In January of this year there assembled in Washington a committee of leading industrialists who at the call of the president were to consider this main question, "Can we afford to give opportunities of secondary education to all children?"

It is highly desirable that committees should think clearly, even when they are summoned to Washington to do it. But neither the call for this meeting nor the enthusiasm of the leading industrialists who attended gave any indication that those concerned found any fallacy in the words or in the summons "Can we afford to give opportunities of secondary education to all children?"

In a republic, public education is not a **gift**, not **charity**, not a **contribution** to the needs of poor and unfortunate parents. Its purpose is to adjust growing citizens to a growing world. We educate not to relieve parents but to protect and perpetuate our investment in culture and civilization. Yet this committee considered, can we, that is the rich, the intellectual, the cultured, the old families, **afford to give**. That is, can we tax ourselves and also tax the poor, the mediocre-minded, the uncouth and those of foreign birth, so that we can make a pres-

ent of secondary education to those not of our own personal status.

The committee also considered as follows:

"Is the American ideal of a secondary education for every child too high? In Europe, they plan a secondary education for only ten per cent of all children. Here we seek such an education for all children. Is this program too costly for American property to endure?"

"In times of distress will the tax return from American property and taxpayers be too small to supply the needs of a program aiming at a secondary education for every child? Shall we have to revise this plan to more closely approach the European standard? Is this one partial solution to the current problem of shrinking school income?"

Throughout these two paragraphs runs the same idea. Education is a donation like poor relief and Christmas charity. The question that faces us is not what we can give to the child, but what can we, to our own advantage do with the child until he reaches the age of competence and employment. Four out of five college professors and college graduates will nod with approval to a plan which would restrict high-school education to ten per cent of all children provided that their children and those of their neighbors be in the ten per cent.

Very bluntly, parents and the state must do something with children until they are old enough to go to work. Fifty years ago this meant until they were fourteen. Now it means until they are eighteen. Children reach the secondary-school door at fourteen. If only ten per cent are allowed to enter, some employment must be found for the ninety per cent.

To condemn to idleness some millions of our 14-18 year old youth is too hazardous to contemplate and our primary question, Shall we restrict secondary education to a selected 10 per cent? becomes in effect. Shall we restrict life to a chosen ten per cent?

**What Work for the 90%.—**Let us begin with the girls. Every main avenue for employment at fourteen has now been



closed. The factories are closed. Even in the cotton mills larger and more complicated machinery has forever put an end to child labor at the loom. The department stores no longer want these children. These stores are run by men and women and except for the Christmas rush the stores want young people, but no children. House work has been closed to them, too. This was very common in 1900 but to-day houses have electrical and other appliances and the kitchen girl is not employed.

Furthermore, marriage is closed to them.

For boys the story is no different. The care of horses, the milking of cows, special farm activities, gave employment to thousands of farm boys in 1890 and continues to do this in European countries. In great measure this work with us is now gone. H. C. Morrison has recently declared as follows: "The presence of minors in industry, up to the age of 18 by our certain knowledge, and probably up to the time of majority at 21, is an economic disadvantage in principle."

There is, then, but one answer. If we adopt the European status of ten per cent of fourteen to eighteen year old children in school, we must accept the standard of living that produces employment for ninety per cent of these children.

This means a reduction to a status of peasantry on the farms and of child labor in the cities. We have outgrown this and none of the leading industrialists assembled at Washington proposed to open his own factory or his own mercantile establishment to furnish employment for children.

**Why Did Not Catastrophe Win?**—America has been none too happy in the last three years, but there has been sporadic rising of the disheartened only. To this comparative quiet, our schools have made the greatest contribution. In our homes there has been worry and want. The older sister and the father have been but part-time employed, but the boys and girls fourteen to eighteen have been busy in their schools and they and their families have been buoyed up with the knowledge that investments in skills and in knowledge are being added to the family store.

I wish to be specific. I have two sons. Both were educated at a famed academic college. The older graduated in 1930 and at once found employment. In January, 1932, his company went flat and he was out of a job. The younger graduated in June, 1932, and he could find no work. Both at once entered vocational schools for further preparations for their professions. Fortunately, I am able to give these sons this training, but the point is that they, I, my home, all are far happier than would be possible if two unemployed young men were waiting idly for better times. The maid who comes day by day to clean my house has six children. The father and oldest sister, who left school at fourteen, have part time employment. Three children are in the elementary schools. Three are in the high school. The two boys came back to this school when they lost their jobs. The girl did not leave school for work as her brothers had done. The father is in night school pursuing mechanical drawing. This family could not afford private education high or low, but this home, like mine, in this hard year has no idle unemployed hanging around and it waits in patience.

If to our great mass of unemployment there had been added the discontent of countless homes where in idleness and distrust these children waited without task or assignment, it is very possible that our national stability itself might have been endangered.

The secondary-school has aided America greatly to keep its balance and serenity in these post-war years.

**State Support for High Schools.**—The acceptance of the secondary program as common school education raises in every state one vital administrative problem. It is that of support. In 1833 it was believed that every school unit, whether town, district, or county, was large enough to fill, administer and support its local one to eight grade schools. It is certain in 1933 that only cities and populous counties have wealth, population and leadership sufficient to maintain at high efficiency its own complete secondary-school.

When selected pupils only went to high school they could be selected to fit a single, narrow curriculum, and if the teacher



was good a good school resulted, but a common high school with pupils of differing needs and aptitudes must have a much broader program, and with a high school of fewer than three hundred enrollment this aim can hardly be reached with efficiency and economy.

Let us consider now the breakdown of the geographical unit of control which our fathers adopted.

In most of our states, the last century has seen a complete social, economic and industrial revolution. In 1833 the country was predominantly agricultural. It was divided into many semi-independent counties or townships and these with few exceptions were approximately equal in population, in children to be educated, in taxable wealth and in dominant men. Nearly all citizens were farmers or those who rendered comfort and assistance to farmers, as cobblers, ministers, and storekeepers. Neither wealth nor town leadership was mobile.

Civilization in 1833 was in most respects medieval. Transportation and industry of all kinds were little different from that which prevailed in the days of John, the landless king. In particular, all farm work was done by hand or by implements not materially changed from those of the Middle Ages and, moreover, production was for use and not for exchange.

Then came as a spring efflorescence farm machinery of all kinds, factories, railroads and an enlarged vision which made those years a true renaissance. We call this the period of industrial revolution. It resulted in states richer and more populous than ever before, states no longer agricultural but predominantly industrial; states of cities and manufacturing villages and also of great open spaces; states which have gathered pioneers and outcasts from all the ends of the earth; states so foreign that strange names and alien cultures are everywhere seen; and yet states so American that they bind all together in ceaseless industry in patriotism and in the support of education as an essential in a republic.

In this period of transition two points have been clearly seen. The children whether in rich or poor communities are equally the wards of the state and in their welfare the state is

equally concerned. The serf is no longer bound to the soil. He moves readily from his ancestral acres and transportation has become so easy and migration so common that ignorance can no longer be localized. No city can insure its future, if it educates its children alone, for no Chinese Wall can shut out those reared in ignorance in impoverished nearby towns.

Neither can taxable property be localized as formerly. In 1833 a rich farming town might have four stores and a dozen artisans with their mills and small shops. These served the town and with their equipment and stock in trade were taxed for the schools of the community. In 1933 this town has as many farms and nearly as great a population as a century before but not within its borders a mill, a store or an artisan's shop. These all have moved into nearby or more remote villages or cities. Improved roads, mail order catalogues, and the common use of the telephone, and the automobile have made possible a distant service when formerly service must be secured near at hand. From the industrial towns and cities at least a score of artisans and merchants continue to serve this agricultural town. In labor they belong to the town but they reside elsewhere and are taxed for the benefit of the already well-to-do city.

Again in 1833 men of means lived permanently on their farm homes and surplus wealth was localized and used for town development. Accordingly, it was taxed for the local schools. In 1933 as fast as men acquire rural property they seek urban homes and all surplus wealth, taken from the rural areas, is in city banks or city securities and is used to develop these industrial centers. It is town money but it is taxed for the benefit of city schools. Since these two factors are clearly seen we can accept this principle. The child is the ward of the state and we shall tax the state dollar wherever it is for the welfare of the state child wherever he may reside.

In every state it has been made apparent that wealth is mobile and children are relatively stable, and it is equally apparent that our early geographical units often do not fit social needs, are too inelastic and very frequently too small for the development of specialized education.

A school map of any state will show cities, large towns, and compact counties with high-school opportunities adequate and available for all children. It will show also untouched frontiers or in our more densely populated states extensive interspaces. Neither the frontier counties nor the small depopulated rural inter-towns have children or wealth for high-school support and maintenance.

Most states have recognized the situation and by equalization laws, by transportation and tuition reimbursements and by direct aid have given assistance.

There are signs in many places that states will do well to go further. Education in all states has been held to be a state rather than a local function, and the high-school field is one in which the state as a whole has particular interest. The difficulty may be met not by granting more and more aid to weak public schools and to struggling private schools which aim or claim to render public high-school service, but by establishing throughout the state regional high-schools entirely under state control and maintenance. This would leave every fiscal unit large enough to maintain its own secondary-school with entire freedom to do so, while it would permit on the frontiers and in the interspaces the schools needed for equalized secondary-school opportunity.

**Why State High Schools.**—As state high schools develop two very real advantages will appear. These schools will be free from college control of subject matter and technique of instruction. They can develop the civic curricula needed for pupils who are not preparing to live but are actually living while they are preparing. These new curricula will replace the emphasis on the ideals of a bygone age of the skills, aptitudes, and interests of our common American life. The state is well able to develop schools which will actually be not for a chosen ten per cent but for the ninety per cent as well.

The second advantage is a corollary. For these schools the state must train in its own institutions the needed teachers. This is a task that cannot be sublet, and which cannot be given to another. Every state has in a generation recreated

its elementary schools since it has trained its own teachers for this task. Similarly it may recreate its secondary-schools when it trains its own teachers to teach subject matter second, and children first. This is an unprecedented opportunity.

The dean of us all, that Nestor among educators, Doctor Albert E. Winship, said recently as he looked back over a long and fruitful life, "If I could choose my decade for educational work it would be the one which is now begun." He meant that to every generation in our educational dynasty comes one opportunity for a great adventure. We have that opportunity.

The greatest migration in history is not across the channel or the Atlantic. It is not the winning of an island or of a continent. It is the moving forward in thirty years of 4,000,000 young people four years further in education than their parents went.

**Who Creates Public Schools?**—In a republic, public schools invariably follow a public demand and are created in response to that demand. This was true of the Pilgrim and Puritan schools. The president of Harvard College, the governor of the commonwealth, the financial and cultured heads of the Massachusetts colonies, did not in their wisdom design the primary school, endow it and give it to the people. Nothing happened until in General Court the Cooks and Hodges and Fishers said, "The Carvers and Brewsters can employ tutors or teach their own children. We can do neither but our children are as good as theirs," and they, the common men of the legislature, established the people's schools.

Similarly, Horace Mann had no difficulty in convincing the proletariat that its children were worthy of eight grades. His troubles were with the learned schoolmasters. When the people demanded grammar schools, they got them.

Why have we high schools? Is it that in 1900 at some national meeting of college presidents a committee was named to design tax-supported schools that would carry academic knowledge to the children of the farms and the tenements? Was it because leaders of thought, the press, and the clergy had a vision of the future and cleared the way? Was it because men

of wealth were filled with philanthropic zeal? No. The colleges opposed or dourly shook their heads. The clergy and press were apprehensive that too many would be educated, but the people by popular vote in hundreds of towns established high schools.

So now the development of public post-secondary-schools, state universities, junior colleges, professional colleges for teachers, vocational schools for artisans and skilled workers, municipal colleges, are opposed not by men and women of business affairs, not by skilled workers, but by those who would restrict higher education to the elect. So, too, our high schools are questioned by those who would deny education to all but his 10 per cent.

Learned boards and great foundations may issue warnings. College presidents may withhold approval. Congress and forty-eight legislatures may enact laws and still the movement will continue. IN A REPUBLIC, PUBLIC SCHOOLS INVARIABLY FOLLOW A PUBLIC DEMAND AND ARE CREATED IN RESPONSE TO THAT DEMAND, AND THE AMERICAN PEOPLE BELIEVE IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL.

United States Commissioner of Education, Wm. John Cooper, read his paper entitled *The National Survey of Secondary Education*.

## THE CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL

WM. JOHN COOPER,  
U. S. Commissioner of Education.

The curriculum of the secondary-school was one of the major subjects of the survey. This topic was assigned to Mr. Arthur K. Loomis, then of the Denver Schools, for a general overview. He studied the subjects in the curriculum and investigated the percentage of these subjects which pupils enrolled in the high-schools took in 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920, and 1930. It is interesting to note that he discovered that in a period of twenty years the number of courses increased from 52

to 306 in the same group of schools. The dominant shifts in subjects required of all pupils have been away from foreign language and mathematics during the last forty years toward social sciences and physical education. For example, in a classical high-school in an Eastern city the work in foreign language and mathematics declined from 95.6 per cent of all the work taken in 1890 to 58.68 per cent in 1930. For a school in the Rocky Mountain Region the decline during the same time was from 54½ per cent on foreign language and mathematics to only 32.7 per cent. While these changes were going on new subjects, namely, the non-academic subjects, were coming into the high-school curricula. These subjects are the natural sciences and social sciences among those generally accepted for college entrance and the fine arts, practical arts, and physical education among those less generally accepted. With this brief statement on the general trend in the curriculum we shall pass to some of the more important subjects of the curriculum itself.

The investigation of the subject of English was assigned to Miss Dora V. Smith of the University of Minnesota. She was able to find 156 courses of study which had appeared since 1925. They represented 127 cities in 33 states. Three of them were published by the state department of education. Of these 156, 62 were for junior high-schools only, 23 were for strictly senior high-schools, and 47 were intended to be used in four-year high-schools. In addition to making a careful analysis of these courses of study, Miss Smith made a further check by visiting classes. She was able to get into thirty cities in fifteen states. Therefore her conclusions are probably representative.

First of all, she investigated methods used in the building of courses of study. (She found a great variety of them). Usually these courses were constructed by committees of teachers sometimes working under the departments of research, sometimes under an assistant superintendent, and quite generally under a senior high-school English teacher as chairman. In some cases the teachers received university credit. In other cases those who worked on the courses of



study most intensively and especially those who were entrusted with writing it up were freed from other assignments during that time.

There appears to be no general procedure accepted by everyone. Evaluation of the work done on the courses of study is almost non-existent. There is apparently no effort so far to study the methods used. Fourteen of the 156 courses of study contain references to the general objectives of secondary education. Many of the courses are so organized as to contribute in one way or another to the general purposes of secondary education. Courses in free reading and courses in creative writing are frequently found, especially in the West. These courses contribute mainly to the recreational and leisure time objectives of secondary education and are taken most frequently and enjoyed most by the gifted pupils.

In more than 85 per cent of the courses the time allotment is given as five periods a week. It is slightly lower in the senior high-school. The length of the period is not mentioned frequently enough to make it worth tabulating. In general, this time is less than the time which was given in 1915-1920, when a fairly typical survey showed that 7.4 periods were used in the seventh grade, 7.5 in the eighth grade, and 5.2 in the ninth grade. In this survey a study of sixty junior high-schools reveals 6.4 periods used in the seventh grade, 6.1 periods in the eighth grade, and 5 periods in the ninth. The separate courses in penmanship, grammar, spelling, reading, etc., common in 1915, seem to have disappeared almost entirely in favor of the unified course in English. Reference is still made to a division of time between composition and literature and this division is shown in some of the courses. Both composition and literature, however, appear to be taught in the same term and sometimes are assigned definite days in the week. Letter writing, which undoubtedly constitutes the major use of composition, does not appear to be mentioned often as one of the objectives but it is found usually in the course of study themselves.

"Obviously," says Miss Smith, "the relative proportion of space devoted to a topic in the course of study may be a very poor indication of its relative emphasis in teaching. The evi-

dence presented in this section merely corroborates the impression gained from classroom visitation and from the compilation of aims, that the form of expression, whether oral or written, receives notably more emphasis in secondary-schools to-day than does the desirability of having ideas to express."

On the teaching of grammar there is a desire to have "that amount of grammar which is functional" in speech and in writing. An analysis of the grammar content in 22 junior high and 22 senior high-school courses shows that this amount varies from 45 topics to 149 topics. Obviously nobody knows how many topics are functional. Diagraming, for instance, is recommended in nine of the 22 courses.

There are many suggestions for determining the frequency of error in English and of methods for removing these. Facts such as these indicate the effort that curriculum makers are putting forth to eliminate the non-essentials in grammar and to secure a thorough study of the things which will bring accuracy in speech and in writing. Conferences held by Miss Smith with the curriculum makers and the courses of study themselves indicate that the program of minimum essentials in English is now in a very chaotic condition. In general, the trend is away from a common minimum required of everybody. Individual variations are at present the vogue. Some systems have definitely abandoned the effort to bring everybody up to a common level of performance. Others have retained minimum but have reduced the proportion of mastery to be expected of abilities at different levels. Where requirements are found they usually include oral composition and written composition. Usually they are stated in such terms as length of time in minutes. All these rules are, of course, very subjective. Before such progress can be expected in the field of minimum requirements, more definite agreement must be had on the meaning of the term "Specific definition of outcomes to be expected".

In the course in literature no emphasis on specific courses was found. Certain type predominate in certain grades. For instance, the essay form leads in grade 11. The novel is uppermost in grades 9 and 10. Drama leads in grades 11 and 12



and biography seems to be the leading subject in grade 9. But no other type of literature is especially prominent in any year. There is great difference in practice in schools in the classics used. Of thirty classics found in most frequent use in the English courses, grades 7-12 inclusive, Silas Marner ranks first, being given in 57 schools out of a total of 156; Julius Caesar is second with 52 schools; Idylls of the King is third with 45 schools; Ivanhoe is fourth with 44 schools; and Tale of Two Cities fifth with 43 schools. No other classic is used in as many as 40 schools. This merely indicates that the type of literature given in school in 1890, when its main function was preparation for college, is no longer satisfactory. Furthermore, abundant additional materials, awakening interests and stimulating sympathies into a twentieth century world, are making their appearance. "Biography," says the author, "pioneering adventure, and miscellaneous prose from every field of modern thought and endeavor demand rightful place beside ten long narrative poems in the reading program of adolescent youth."

There also seems to be coming into the schools more attention to individual reading. Group courses are now common. In both Denver and Seattle it is customary in a class of forty pupils to furnish ten each of a kind. This encourages free reading. There is a tendency also to establish a classroom library, getting the books from either the school library or the public library. There is also a tendency to connect the English with the other subjects in the curriculum. In the city of Cleveland a group of seniors under the leadership of one of their own number discussed treasures in the art museums of their own city which would call forth such reactions as are called forth by Keat's Ode to the Grecian Urn. In Rochester a class of juniors, becoming skeptical regarding Emerson's advice regarding self-reliance, were discussing the possible effects upon themselves and society if these findings were carried to their logical conclusions. A ninth grade group in Cicero were discussing the results of regarding Lindbergh as the subject of a modern Odyssey. And still another group in Cranston, R. I., were comparing methods by which one could become acquainted with people in fiction and in life.

Through the English laboratory visual aids, story telling, the Little Theatre, and other devices, English is becoming correlated with the other subjects in the school. "On the whole," we are told, "helps for the development of content reading are practical and in accord with current theories of the teaching of the subject." In some schools, however, the literature is still along classical lines. Here, it is found that teachers offer as an excuse that they are following college entrance requirements. Yet in the college entrance field little evidence is found of any required classics, either in the requirements for individual colleges or in the college entrance board examinations.

But in the work of correlating English with other subjects, satisfactory progress is being made. In the Lincoln and Horace Mann schools at Teachers College, experiments are under way at the present time. In the Horace Mann school the teachers of English and social studies call from the departments of science, art, music, mathematics, and languages the teachers as the development of one of their units requires. The teachers of social studies and art are present throughout the course.

Provisions for individual differences are made in many courses. These vary from the so-called three track program which is exemplified by the course at Sacramento through the fixed minimum for all pupils with electives. These characterize the courses in many cities. In the Sacramento course the distinction between the X course and the Y course is a difference in the degree of attainment. The X students who are in the Y course do the work of the Y course but are expected to do it in a notably better way. The Z course, however, represents a differentiation in type. These pupils do none of the work of the Y course itself. In the fixed minimum course the minima are required of the duller pupils only. The next group of pupils are expected to do this work and in addition other work, while the X pupils do the maximum amount.

As a result of her study of English in the schools Miss Smith finally raises some nine problems and suggests that they be left to the National Council of Teachers of English. These

people are alert and are now making studies in the direction of finding the answers to these problems.

The study in foreign language was written by Helen M. Eddy of the University of Iowa. There are three general chapters entitled "Modern Foreign Languages", "Latin", and "Foreign Language in the Junior High-School." Miss Eddy reports that she examined 207 courses of study in foreign languages from all sections of the country and from all types of schools and that she visited 263 classes. Of these 82 were Latin classes or general language classes in the junior high-school, 181 were in modern foreign languages. She found the classes in modern foreign languages in a transitional condition, due, she feels certain, to the fact that most of them were trying to bring their courses of study into line with the modern foreign language study, a survey which occurred under the leadership of Dr. Fife of Columbia University. She finds that in general there is an agreement in the profession upon the cultural objectives of modern language. These are, first, to secure a knowledge of the foreign country and its peoples; and second, to secure an increased knowledge of English words, English grammar, and the relationship between the foreign language and English. There is also a majority of courses which agree upon the four-fold aim of modern language: (1) that the purpose of the study of any language is that one may read it. But there is little agreement as to when one should attack the next two objectives, which are, (2) writing the language, and (3) speaking it. Through these subjects one is supposed to achieve the fourth objective which is to understand the language. But there is a swing toward a type of course recommended by the modern foreign language study which stresses reading and understanding the language. "The study of the teaching of modern foreign languages in the secondary-schools," says Miss Eddy, "shows an abounding interest in the organization of the course, the enrichment of the content, in preparation of teaching materials and testing instruments and in the modification of teaching activity in varied kinds without and within the classroom." She finds, however, a corresponding tendency to load pupils even though they be immature and inferior in ability. Although the profes-

sion generally has accepted reading as the primary aim, there is a difference in opinion as to the best method to secure reading ability. Reading and understanding of the spoken language are in general the aims of the first two years. Emphasis upon speaking and writing as ends in themselves may be postponed to the third and fourth years. Usually reading is taught by reading, not by means of oral and written reproductive exercises. Miss Eddy looks for the report of the Modern Language Association to open the way for the introduction of much scientifically tested material leading to the improvement of foreign language teaching.

In the classes in Latin which she visited, she found them attempting to bring their course into keeping with the classical investigation of 1924. This means that a much more gradual introduction is made to Latin, no classical writer being studied before the fourth semester. It is reported that only five per cent of the pupils who begin the study of Latin in the school continue it in college. Consequently the work given each year should be organized to be worth while in itself. The chief field of the traditional course was the emphasis upon grammar in the first year and upon the reading of the classical writers in the later years of the course.

In practice the chief recommendation of the report as to content is adhered to. The amount of grammar has been reduced in the first year. But the suggestion with regard to reading and understanding of Latin are not followed to any appreciable extent. Efforts of one teacher to make Latin live are commended. This method involves a classroom fixed up in keeping with the subject, decorated with Caproni casts, numerous original maps dating back to 1600, small oils and water colors from Naples and Rome giving unusual views of locations which pertain to the classes, small vases of Pompeiian red set on black and white brackets, and containing green ivy vines, and the bulletin board with clippings which pertain to class events and are frequently changed.

Foreign language in the junior high-school is still in a chaotic state. Latin leads the other languages in the seventh year, but in the eighth it is surpassed by both Spanish and

French. It resumes its lead again in the ninth grade but after that is a second to French, German, and Spanish. In general, one and one-half years of junior high-school languages count as one year in the senior high-school. General language is taught in one or more schools in sixteen states. No such course is offered in twenty-three states and ten states did not reply. This course has been defined by Miss Wehr of Indiana State College in this way, "General language is a course placed in the junior high-school covering a semester's (or a year's) work, offering instruction in the history of the development and evolution of language, especially the development of the English language, an introduction to the results of comparative philology and exploratory lessons in several different foreign languages." Its aims are said to be, first, guidance, to develop a language sense and to give sufficient experience to know what language to study or to avoid. Second, academic, to give a knowledge of the evolution and development of language and especially English, to provide an understanding of certain organizing principles common to all languages. Third, to develop an interest in and appreciation of the English language, a feeling of sympathy for foreign peoples and an interest in the study of their language. A typical course shows the historical place of English, and the history of etymology of certain English words followed by ten lessons in Latin, French, Spanish, and German. This course is varied by other authors depending upon the languages offered in the school. There have not been any satisfactory attempts to measure its effectiveness. In one school system in California, out of nine teachers in five schools, seven thought the course worth while and two considered it a waste of time. In a class visited in the city of Detroit composed of pupils below average in intelligence, they were found to be answering the teacher's questions in a perfunctory way until the foreign language situation itself was reached. Then they changed their attitude and became rather anxious and eager to respond. In general, the aims and values of this course need to be more sharply defined on the basis of experimentation. On the whole, foreign languages in the junior high-school have been quite successful.

Of the other academic subjects, mathematics, the social sciences, and the natural sciences, I shall discuss the monograph on the natural sciences, by Dr. Wilbur L. Beauchamp of the University of Chicago. In it are discussed such topics as the educational objectives listed in the course of study, the organization of courses of study, the selection of subject matter, suggestions on instructional technique, types of classroom teaching, etc. It shows rather conclusively that whereas some thirty years ago there were numerous short courses, at the present time they are year courses primarily in the field. General science and biology are new courses which have come in during the past 25 or 30 years. Chemistry has been lengthened and its contents brought more nearly in keeping with modern scientific theories. The course in physics is now a year course. It puts more emphasis upon electricity in accordance with modern practice in life. In some cases it develops its teachings around practical everyday machines such as an automobile. In completing the monograph on this subject, the author says:

First, that "the courses of study are not based upon an adequate and clear-cut theory of education", and

Second, "the data available from scientific studies at the present time are directed solely upon the content of the courses. Little if any experimentation has been carried on to indicate grade placement of these materials and no investigations have been made to discover the steps in the acquisition of methods of thinking employed by the scientist."

Time does not permit further attention to the academic subjects. There have come into the program, however, since 1890 many subjects in the practical and fine arts, homemaking and physical education. To these I must give some attention. One of the monographs of the series is devoted to two general subjects usually known as the fine arts. These are the subject of music, which has been studied by Miss Anne E. Pierce of the University of Iowa, and graphic arts, which has been studied by Robert S. Hilbert of the University of Minnesota.

What is the condition of music at present in our secondary-schools? In following the survey report we find that mu-



sic has developed within the past three decades. "Prior to 1900," writes Miss Pierce, "music was included among school studies by the educator primarily for its disciplinary value against the opposition of the laymen who considered it a 'fad' undeserving of an expenditure of time and of the taxpayers' money". At the present time, only 30 years later, she finds many cities which have a large financial investment in pianos, orchestral and band instruments, music libraries, phonographs and phonograph records. More than 35,000 orchestras are reported in the public schools, some of them of a quality to render the symphonies well. There is a national high-school orchestra of nearly 400 players chosen through competition from all the states of the Union, and a national high-school chorus numbering 452 students; there are the National Music Camp at Interlochen, Michigan, and the Eastern Music Camp at Oakland, Maine. All of these have grown up within the last decade or so.

The courses of study in music are not numerous. For example, in the Bureau of Curriculum Research of Teachers College, Columbia University, thirty thousand odd courses of study representing all fields were reported in August, 1931, but a search of this vast amount of material revealed only 96 courses in music. Of this number 12 were state courses written since 1924. The remainder were drawn up for city systems and were written within the fifteen-year period. These 96 courses furnish the basis for getting a general bird's-eye view of music in the school. The general objectives most often subscribed to in these courses have been classified under these heads: Aesthetic, creative, disciplinary, emotional and ethical, leisure time, physical, social, and vocational.

Although all of these objectives may be legitimate, we wish to stress the place of music in the spending of one's leisure time. In Long Beach, Calif., this aim is prominent. "Music," it is said, "provides a safe emotional outlet for leisure time through establishing high standards in tastes and habits in music." The social aim of course is prominent in most of the courses of study, especially where orchestras and choruses are involved. Nearly all courses have a certain amount of voca-

tional purpose. They are all endeavoring to discover the abilities in music which will lead to music as a career for even a few children. "For example," Miss Pierce found, "of 293 members of the national high-school orchestra in 1930 only 38 per cent stated that they expected to become professional performers, while 10 per cent indicated that they planned to earn their livelihood as music teachers." The main purpose then of music for the majority of these best pupils in the high-schools was purely avocational. This is indeed a good sign.

In the courses of study Miss Pierce found no clear-cut recognition of differences between the course in the junior high-school and the course in the senior high-school except that in general the latter course was more advanced. There are some courses, such as the history of music and music theory, which are offered only as elective courses in the senior high-school. Choruses and glee clubs are common in both junior and senior schools and a capella choirs are found in some of the larger schools. It may be assumed that nearly all the members of these organizations are studying music with a view to the better spending of leisure time.

Probably the greatest difficulty lies in the new institutions which we call junior high-school. At this time the voices of most of the boys are "breaking". Consequently we usually feel justified in excusing these boys from all music work of a vocal character. Unless one has sufficient talent and interest to play an instrument he is excused from music entirely during this period.

In investigating the work in art, Mr. Hilbert also started with courses of study. In response to a request from the National Survey, 56 courses were received. They varied from a single typed page to a bound volume. These courses came from 42 cities in 22 states and may be regarded as typical of the country. In addition to studying these courses of study visits were made to 35 schools in 13 cities located in 7 different states. It was found that about 25 years ago the art courses took a decided swing toward industrial art. At the present time there appears to be another swing toward art appreciation. This



was shown in 58 per cent of the courses of study examined. Among new objectives were the "development of creative ability" found in 22 per cent of the courses and "self-expression" found in 29 per cent of them.

From the course of study in art issued by the New York City Board of Education in 1930, we learn "The purpose of the art appreciation course is to reveal to the pupil the beauty of nature and of the arts so that he may recognize and enjoy the world of beautiful things about him and gain an appreciation of the finest, which will reflect beauty in his life and in his living. It aims to engender love of beauty \* \* \* to develop good taste \* \* \* to enrich life and train for leisure \* \* \* to gratify the desire to create \* \* \* and to encourage talent.

The selection of subject matter in the courses of study does not show a close correlation with the objectives expressed, but visits to classes show that usually the teachers were adapting the course to the needs and the interests of the pupils. In general, the subject matter of the courses themselves was organized in a logical form but teachers adjusted it to the needs and interests of children. There seems to be no careful grading of subject matter. Usually the work in art appreciation, design, and drawing are organized as separate courses and taught in grades 7 and 8 as required work, or they are given in grades 9 and 10 sometimes as required but more often as elective courses. When they are given in grades 11 and 12 they are nearly always elective.

But almost the identical subject matter could be found in the junior high-school or in the senior high-school. With the exception of stage design, clay modeling and metal work, all the topics can be found as low as grade 7 and as high as grade 12. Metalcraft usually is found in grades 10 to 12 although it is offered in but few schools, and costume design, interior decoration, figure drawing, and fabric design are more frequently taught in grades 10 and 11 than in the lower grades. It is evident from these courses and from the visits made to classes that research in this field is badly needed. Some progress could be made probably if teachers are encouraged to try innovations both in subject matter and in methods of teaching, but

this should be done either by well trained teachers or only under their careful supervision.

Studies were also made in the extracurriculum field. Of these, I shall mention briefly only one, and that is a study made on libraries by B. Lamar Johnson. These libraries existed, according to their sponsors, to secure better performance in the regular courses of study and for recreational reading. The questions which arose had to do with visual instruction, library work rooms, classrooms for teaching library practice, conference rooms and the like; also who staffed these rooms. Were they librarians or teachers or a combination of the two? A special investigation of libraries had to do with their location, whether they were adjoining study rooms or entirely separate from these rooms was one of the controversial issues raised. While librarians in general favored the separation, it was found that 17,000 students by a vote of over two to one favored having them together and where this was the case used them extensively.

These fragments of studies on the curriculum and the extra-curriculum must be taken as representative of them all. Time forbids a more extensive treatment. Some manuscripts are now published and others will soon be published at which time any one can read the subjects in which he is particularly interested.

The following nominating committee was named, with O. S. Lakes, J. B. Holloway, W. L. Uhl, G. N. Kefanore, and L. P. Farris being chosen from the floor. The other members were: Walter B. Spencer, P. H. Powers, C. F. Allen, Wm. Wetzel, W. E. Wing, Ross Young, James Roe, Carl Burris, R. S. Butterfield, Mark Godman, M. H. Stuart, D. W. McCoy, B. J. Rivett, and Parke Schock.

The session was then adjourned.

## DISCUSSION GROUPS

On Tuesday morning the convention was divided into discussion groups.

### GROUP NO. 1

The group that met in the Ball Room of the Leamington Hotel was presided over by R. B. Clem, Principal, Shawnee High-School, Louisville, Kentucky.

*The Improvement and Economy in Administration* was presented by Professor W. C. Reavis of the University of Chicago.

### IMPROVEMENT AND ECONOMY IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

WILLIAM C. REAVIS,  
Professor of Education,  
University of Chicago

Principals of secondary-schools throughout the United States have had smaller budgets for administration this year than in any year since the depression began. Present prospects indicate that still further reductions must be made in the school budget for 1933-34. An anomolous situation has thus been created in secondary-school administration, namely, an abnormal increase in the demand for secondary education and an alarming decrease in school funds. The increase in school enrolment has been accentuated (1) by the gain in holding power due to the suppression of opportunities for the employment of young people in business and industry, and (2) by the return of graduates and individuals who had formerly withdrawn and who now because of enforced idleness prefer to re-enter the secondary-school for whatever offerings are available rather than loaf.

The problems created by either phase of the situation operating singly present many difficulties in administration;

but when the phases operate concurrently administrative demands are made which require a type of skill not previously called for in secondary-school administration. As a result the methods employed in the solution of the problem may or may not meet with the success desired.

Some principals, acting under orders of boards of education, have applied a method in solving the problems widely advocated by "self-styled" leaders in budget reform who would treat the school budget ruthlessly with the "pruning knife" as is the custom in business and industry when earnings decline. Teaching positions have been eliminated, cutting adrift professional workers of ability and merit; services have been curtailed or suppressed; course offerings have been reduced; penny-wise economies have been imposed; and parsimonious policies have been resorted to. This method is especially hazardous in educational administration, especially so when the demands for service are on the increase. If radical reductions in budget items likely to be attended with serious consequences appear to be required the effects should be carefully calculated, and the supporting public duly informed of the curtailment proposed in relation to the results anticipated before the reductions are actually made.

Other principals have viewed the problem of necessary economies in the light of a challenge, have analyzed their budgets in relation to the services provided, and have measured each possible economy with tested principles before putting the economy into effect. In brief, the problem in economy is solved through administrative efficiency. In such instances improvements in administration may have actually resulted through the practice of the economy required.

The thesis of this discussion involves the present necessity for budget economy as a challenge to administrative improvement. Stated in the form of a question, "Is it possible to improve administration in the secondary-school while effecting necessary economies?" The evidence on which the possibility of economy is based is largely quantitative, while that in support of increased efficiency is chiefly qualitative. For example, it can be shown by objective data that important econo-

mies in secondary-school administration have already been effected in many schools, ranging from very small to very large percentages of budget items. The effect of the economies, however, must be appraised subjectively, and on such evidence must rest the claims for increased efficiency in administration.

Quantitative data regarding the costs of secondary-school administration prior to the depression tend to indicate that administrative results were in some instances secured at excessive costs, thereby giving support to the hypothesis that in such instances administration has been wasteful, and that the necessity for economy merely affords a timely occasion for needed improvements in administration. As support for this contention data can be cited showing the wide range in the total cost of administration in comparable secondary-schools prior to the depression; or the cost of specific items of administration, such as clerical assistance, telephone service, and graduation exercises.

Three examples will be given to show that the variation in the cost of administration in comparable schools prior to the depression affords a basis for the foregoing hypothesis. 1. The cost of administration in School A, which enrolled 912 pupils, was \$27,350 in 1929, or a per-pupil cost of \$30. The cost in School B the same year, which enrolled 957 pupils, was \$11,973, or \$12.51 per pupil. Since these schools are similar in organization and comparable in standing, the difference in the per-pupil cost of administration of \$17.50 may lead one to question the relation of cost to efficiency in administration in the two schools. 2. Schools C and D each enrolled 1,060 pupils and appeared to be administered satisfactorily, yet the cost of administration was approximately \$7,000 greater in School C than in School D, a difference in per-pupil cost of \$6.68, or an increase of 47 per cent. 3. Schools E and F enrolled 2,100 and 1,980 pupils, respectively. The cost of administration in School E was \$67,368, or \$32.08 per pupil, while in School F the cost was \$42,390, or \$21.40 per pupil. Administration in School E therefore cost its supporting community \$10.68, or 50 per cent more per pupil than in School F.

The data on the cost of administration in the six schools, all of which enjoyed equal standing in the same accrediting association and appeared to be administered equally successfully, reveal variations sufficiently great to warrant the most careful analysis of expenditures and evaluation of results. The challenge of economy and improvement would seem to apply to at least four of the six schools.

If the cost of the particular items of administration mentioned is compared further support for the hypothesis is secured. The cost of clerical service in the six schools under consideration ranged from \$9.63 per pupil to \$1.31, telephone service from 20c per pupil to \$1.67, and graduation exercises 2c per pupil to \$1.00. Claims might be made, of course, that the services secured through the greater expenditures were desirable and therefore justifiable; yet the claims might stand without support if measured by the criteria of necessity and efficiency.

Marked variations in administrative costs, such as those cited, warrant the apprehension that officers of administration in secondary-schools have not exercised equal regard for economical management. It is even possible that some administrative officers may have resorted to extravagance as a screen for inefficiency. The evidence seems to indicate that the necessity for economy produced by the depression affords the immediate motivation for a thoroughgoing evaluation of practices in administration.

Additional quantitative data could be produced to show that many administrative practices of secondary-school principals were not considered satisfactory several years ago and that great need for improvement existed. It can scarcely be assumed that all the improvement desired has taken place since that time. Only the most powerful incentives operating generally in secondary-schools could bring about promptly the improvements in administrative efficiency which the facts referred to appeared to warrant. In the absence of evidence to indicate the operation of such incentives, it is safe to assume that administrative practices have not been greatly modified and that the need for improvement still exists. Hence it is en-

tirely possible that the necessity of economy might become the powerful challenge needed to produce administrative improvement and that the two needs, economy and increased efficiency, might operate concurrently with positive effect.

That such a desirable outcome as economy and administrative improvement is possible cannot be doubted, if the qualitative judgment of a group of 17 secondary-school principals affords a valid basis for a conclusion. These principals were asked to list the economies in administration effected in their schools during the current year and to specify (1) those economies that had been attended with an increase rather than a decrease in administrative efficiency, (2) those that had not perceptibly affected the character of administration in the school, (3) those that had caused inconvenience and had tended to lower efficiency, and (4) those that had clearly resulted in the lowering of administrative efficiency. From these sources 197 specific administrative economies were secured with the amount of each economy indicated. The data thus obtained furnish the basis for the evaluation of the assumption implied in the subject assigned for discussion.

Only 9 of the 17 principals reported economies which had resulted in increased rather than decreased school efficiency. These officers listed 23 savings aggregating approximately \$58,000, or an average of \$8,300 to the school. The largest single item in the list consisted in salaries paid to teachers and administrative officers. Analysis of the savings indicates that the economy was effected not by cutting salaries, but chiefly through the reorganization of the staff. Duties of assistants, such as the assistant principal and dean of girls were merged, thus providing for additional teaching service without increasing instructional costs. Heads of departments, formerly released from teaching duties, were assigned to classes and clerical assistance provided which enabled these officials to carry on departmental services not previously given. Class size was increased in virtually all of the schools, thereby increasing the number of pupils to the teacher, and thus reducing the per pupil cost of instruction.



If instructional efficiency were actually increased, as claimed by the administrative measures reported, it resulted evidently from the reorganizations effected because of the economies, rather than from the economies directly. The need for economy, therefore, appears to have served as an immediate motive for administrative reorganization, which in turn operated as a stimulus to instructional improvement. It is probably fair to assume that without the operation of the motive nothing would have happened to stimulate the administrators to make the improvements indicated and that any gain in instructional efficiency in the schools in question would have been the result of chance.

Approximately half of the savings effected were the direct result of improved management brought about by the need for economy. The janitorial service in some of the schools was reorganized by the principal, with the result that important savings were effected in regular cleaning and vacation repairs. A saving on repairs alone in one school aggregated \$4,000. The installation of stokers in another school netted a saving on fuel for the year of \$1,000. These savings, although small in amount, represent a substantial portion of the total economies effected. A factor of equal, if not greater importance, is the belief of the administrative officers that the changes which resulted in the economies were attended with increased efficiency to the school.

Administrative savings were also effected in the telephone service, in postage, in office supplies, and in assembly programs. While these savings were not large (total for three schools \$2,860), nevertheless they contributed to the size of the percentage of the budget saved. In addition they invited administrative change, which, according to the judgment of the principals concerned, resulted in increased efficiency.

Each of the 17 principals reported in List II important economies effected through administration, which, in so far as they could tell, had not resulted in lowering the efficiency of the schools. These economies were extensive in scope, includ-



ing 79 different items and aggregating over a quarter-million dollars (\$287,511).

The largest single saving was in the salaries of teachers and administrative officers. Analysis of the data reveals a very different kind of saving than was found in List I. The saving in List II was effected by reduction in salaries, by the elimination of teachers, by the omission of bonuses for professional improvement, by the curtailment of educational supplies, by the reduction in the annual appropriation for the school library, and by increasing both the size of classes and the number of class periods taught by the teachers.

The principals believe that the teachers, pupils, and parents have accepted all of the economy measures indicated as necessary and have not allowed the inconveniences entailed to interfere with the quality of the instructional work of the school. Unfavorable results have apparently been averted through full cooperation on the part of all concerned.

Economies in the operation and maintenance of plants, savings in insurance, the elimination of expense accounts for attendance at professional meetings, and the curtailment of office costs have enabled the administrative officers to make reductions in budget items which amount to percentages of considerable proportions. The evidence secured indicates that these administrative economies have not as yet resulted in the lowering of the efficiency of the schools.

Many petty economies were also included in List II, such as savings on express charges, legal services, telephone costs, fuel, water, and light, graduation exercises, medical examinations, and the like. Some of the savings were as low as \$25 per school while others were as high as \$400. Although these savings constitute only a small percentage of the total school budget, yet they are considered important in that they represent a thrifty type of administration which seeks to avoid extravagance and waste. The claim of the principals who have made such savings is that school efficiency has not been lowered as a result.

Savings aggregating approximately \$200,000 for the 17 schools were reported in List III as causing inconvenience to

principal, teachers, and pupils and tending to lower the efficiency of the school. Some of the principals placed in this list salary reductions and savings resulting from curtailments in repairs, equipment, and supplies. The chief effect of such savings in the judgment of the principals is the personal inconvenience which tends to be reflected in the character and quality of school work.

It is difficult to see how a claim for increased efficiency could be supported in connection with some of the administrative economies specified in List III. Adjustments are evidently required which interfere with established school procedures. As a result the tendency is toward lower efficiency. However, it is possible that good administration may overcome the retrograde tendency and by encouraging cooperative planning and creative endeavor on the part of all concerned, bring about adjustments to the changed conditions which may ultimately result in school improvement and increased efficiency.

Nine principals specified economies in List IV which had clearly resulted in the lowering of school efficiency. These economies amounted to approximately \$40,000, and consisted chiefly of departmental supplies, mimeograph service, health service, and salaries.

In the case of salaries, reductions had been made to a point which indicated little recognition or appreciation on the part of the Board of Education of trained professional service, thereby causing unrest and low morale among the teachers and encouragement to leave the system. Economies with such attending effects could scarcely establish any claim to increased efficiency. They should be characterized as parsimonious and "penny-wise" savings without justification.

The other types of savings clearly resulted in the waste of teacher time, in great inconvenience to both teachers and pupils, in impairment of the cardinal objectives of secondary education, and in personal hardships to pupils, teachers, and administrative officers. Granting co-operation on the part of all concerned under the conditions, the adjustments required

by the economies imposed without doubt made for lower efficiency and tended to defeat the purposes of the secondary-school.

Some administrators may not be willing to accept the qualitative judgment of fellow administrators to the effect that administrative economies, such as those reported in List I, were actually attended with increased school efficiency. They may claim that the criteria for evaluating the economies were not adequate and what appeared to be increased efficiency was only another way of getting things done and that in reality the results were no better than before, if as good.

Similarly, they may claim that the economies specified in Lists II, III, and IV were merely enforced retrenchments, which are entitled to be classified as present savings but not as ultimate economies. They may consider that the effect of such savings cannot be evaluated at present and that they will result eventually in impaired efficiency and be regarded as false economies.

Whatever the validity of the claims just stated, the warning implied is significant. Hasty qualitative judgments regarding the relation of economies and improvements are hazardous. It does not follow that because a saving is not attended by some noticeable impairment of efficiency the saving is a *bona fide* economy and will result in improvement. Neither is it necessarily true that an economy which causes a temporary maladjustment will result in the lowering of efficiency. On the contrary, it may be argued that some economies of questionable current merit might result in administrative changes which would tend to offset and even compensate the unfavorable present effects of the economies in question. As a matter of fact, the total effect, when evaluated fully, might indicate an ultimate improvement of the school.

The data considered show that economies have been effected and must continue to be made in the cost of secondary education, at least for the next school year. The question of importance in this discussion is the attitude of the principal toward the situation which obtains. If economies are regarded

in the light of administrative retrenchments to be executed without due regard for attending results, the schools are almost certain to suffer losses in efficiency; but if economies are considered as necessary savings to be effected through skillful administrative planning and reorganization the adjustments involved may be utilized as incentives to improvement on the part of those concerned. Thus it is possible that budget savings and administrative improvements may be realized concomitantly. The serious consequences of retrenchments may, therefore, be partly averted, if not fully counterbalanced, through the acceptance by principals of the challenge of improvement and economy in secondary-school administration.

Mr. R. R. Cook, Principal of Roosevelt High-School, Des Moines, Iowa, then read his paper, *Improvement and Economy in Instruction*.

## IMPROVEMENT AND ECONOMY IN INSTRUCTION

R. R. COOK,  
Principal of Theodore Roosevelt High School,  
Des Moines, Iowa

The public is demanding to-day that we train more children, that we do it better and that we do it cheaper.

When tax payers' organizations and legislatures insist on cuts of twenty, thirty, or forty per cent in taxes, after our local school administrations have already practiced every conceivable economy in other ways, there is only one place for such cuts to fall, and that is on the instructional salary budget. As I see it, there are only three possible ways appreciably to reduce instructional costs in the secondary-schools:

1. We may reduce educational offerings to such an extent that we eliminate many children who can not find courses suited to their needs.
2. We may increase the number of pupils per teacher.
3. We may reduce teachers' salaries.

The average taxpayer will insist that his children not suffer by reason of economy measures. Therefore if we are not to make radical cuts in teachers' salaries we must find ways to increase their efficiency so that they can teach much larger numbers of pupils with results at least as satisfactory as they have been.

A year ago, when I asked the members of each department of my faculty to suggest ways in which I could help them to improve their teaching and at the same time relieve the strain of increased class sizes, the three suggestions most frequently offered were:

1. "Give us more teaching aids in the form of mimeographed outlines, tests, and other instructional material."
2. "Help us to reduce the drudgery of the checking of papers and notebooks and the clerical work involved in keeping records and making reports, by furnishing some clerical help."
3. "Relieve us of our worst problem pupils."

"If you can do these things," they said, "we can easily handle more pupils."

Educational literature, during the past few years, has contained many articles dealing with the subject of class size. Investigations, and experiments have been carried on, with more or less scientific measurement, for the purpose of determining whether or not an increase in the size of high-school classes affects the efficiency of instruction. Arguments have appeared both for and against such increases. There has been much evidence that seems to prove that class size does not correlate closely with pupil achievement. But there must be some limit beyond which an increase in class size will decrease the effectiveness of teaching. Just where this limit should be and how many different limits there should be are problems that will require time and money for scientific experiments, just as time and money have been expended for the solution of similar problems in business and industry. We need to have efficiency experts tell us how to handle more pupils per teacher and how to

do it better. After reading much of the literature on the subject, I do not know what the size of classes should be. Perhaps they should be double the present size in some cases, creble in others, fifty per cent greater in others, perhaps less than at present in a few. I believe that it will depend on: (1) the nature of the subject, (2) the method of presentation, (3) the capacity of the teacher. The limit should be as large as possible and still enable the teacher to secure satisfactory results. I believe that the investigations should not be limited to the mere increasing of class size and measuring the results but should be carried on along the line of the selection or development of master teachers, who have the capacity to handle larger classes, give them sufficient clerical and teaching assistance and help them to carry on real experimentation in teaching methods. Are there not some teachers in your school under whose instruction you would far rather place your child than under others? We need to make more extensive use of the abilities of our strong teachers, bringing many more pupils under the influence of their personalities and the stimulus of their teaching. What if you could retain only the better half of your faculty and have all pupils under their direction? Would you not greatly improve the average quality of instruction? We need to do everything within our power to retain salary schedules that will keep in the teaching profession those men and women who, because of native endowment and acquired character and ability can stimulate that active pupil response that educates. If by more efficient classroom methods we can enable such teachers to teach larger numbers of pupils we can afford to pay them salaries that will keep them and that will attract others of their kind.

In two of the Des Moines high-schools, we are carrying on at the present time, in the English and social science departments, experimental units with double size teaching loads, handled by exceptional experienced teachers, each assisted by a lower salaried, well-trained but inexperienced apprentice teacher. Each of these units is furnished a budget for stenographic help and materials. The average pupil-teacher ratio in the Des Moines high-schools is thirty-three. Each of these

master teachers is expected to carry a teaching load of five classes per day, each class having an enrollment of sixty to seventy. The class periods are sixty-five minutes in length in one school, sixty minutes in the other. In the experimental unit at North High-School the master teacher and her assistant are teaching five classes of eleventh grade English. At Roosevelt High-School the unit consists of three classes of twelfth grade civics and two classes of twelfth grade economics.

In each of the experimental units the teachers are assigned to a suite of two classrooms, one of which is large enough comfortably to accommodate seventy people. A smaller adjoining classroom is equipped with tables and tablet arm chairs to be used during the class period each day: (1) by pupils who are doing extra work with their own or school reference equipment, (2) by other pupils who are having difficulty with the assignment and need assistance from the apprentice teacher, and (3) by students making up work which they have missed by reason of absence. Students who have been absent or who are needing more assistance than can be furnished during the class period may secure permission to go to this room from the general study hall at any of their vacant periods.

The large class routine in the social studies, includes the making of outlines for students to follow in the preparation of class assignments. An outline covering each unit of work is mimeographed and placed in the pupils' hands to be closely followed during study periods. A few notes are made during class time, on the topics covered in these assignments. A teacher gives short classroom lectures from time to time describing each new unit of work and bringing to the attention of the class material which is not included in the textbook. General class recitations on textbook material are cut to a minimum. Instead, a short test is given each week, covering the assignment for the week, and at the close of each unit a longer one hour examination is given to test the understanding of the complete unit of work. Class discussions are held for thirty minutes, two or three days each week. They are concerned principally with topics of current interest which are suggested by the textbook assignments. Students are urged to make a



special effort to take part in these discussions, since in the larger size classes the teacher is not able to call upon individual pupils as often as formerly for recitation purposes.

The assistant instructor is used to grade papers, prepare outlines, and test material, gather and tabulate reference readings, check on make-up work of absentees, aid slow pupils individually or in small groups or supervise class study while the master teacher works with small groups that are having difficulty. In order to correlate his work with that of the master teacher, the assistant must study class assignments, consult daily with the master teacher, and be present when lectures or instructions are given to the class as a whole.

At the beginning of the semester each pupil was given a mimeographed statement, outlining the general facts pertaining to the large class experiment and challenging his cooperation in adjusting himself to the large class conditions, suggesting certain study methods and indicating the routine to be followed in the use of classroom library and the keeping of notebooks and outlines. This preliminary bulletin included a bird's-eye outline of the semester's work, to be followed later, from time to time, by more detailed outlines of each unit of work.

Summarizing briefly, the following points in the management of the large classes are to be especially noted:

1. The classroom becomes a work-shop. It is equipped with an adequate reference library and filing space for illustrative material, outlines, etc. The assistant acts as filing clerk.
2. Stenographic assistance and materials for the preparation of instructions, unit outlines and tests is essential. The outlines are working guides to the use of texts and reference material and contain suggestions regarding the things to be done and how to do them.
3. Lectures are kept to a minimum. High-school pupils have not been adequately trained to take notes on lectures. They are confined to instructions on what to do and to the clearing up of difficulties that have been encountered by a considerable number of pupils.

4. Added instruction is furnished in small groups to those who are too slow to absorb instruction from outlines and lectures. Sometimes these small groups are handled by the assistant instructor, sometimes by the master teacher while the assistant supervises the large classroom during work periods.
5. The better students are expected to do considerable supplementary reading in books and magazines.
6. Short ten minute tests are given every few days and major tests are given at the end of each unit of work to check the accumulation and organization of informational knowledge.
7. Several times during the work on a unit, the entire class is broken up into small groups of six to ten pupils, for the discussion of current materials and their correlation with textbook material. Outlines for the discussions are placed, in advance, in the hands of student discussion leaders and while the discussion is going on the instructors pass from group to group, noting the progress, offering suggestions and clearing up problems.
8. Pupils may come from the general study hall to the workroom during vacant periods to read or to make up lessons which they have missed. In doing so, they follow the work outline and secure help from the teacher in charge of the room if needed.

It is still too early in the year to draw final conclusions as to the values and defects of the plan but the following observations have been noted:

#### Advantages—

1. Pupils of ability are benefiting from the challenge of the large class and the greater independence and initiative expected of them. They are being thrown more on their own resources and have more time and opportunity to work.

2. The weak pupils are receiving more individual help and guidance than before. We usually receive criticisms from the parents of pupils who are not succeeding. I have yet to hear the first complaint from the parents of our pupils.
3. The distribution of marks in all five of the social science classes, at the close of the first semester, showed as satisfactory an average as is usually secured in these subjects in smaller classes. The master teacher has adhered to the same standards of marking that he has used heretofore. The classes contain a normal distribution of abilities, as these subjects are required of all pupils for graduation. The total distribution of 318 marks at the close of the fall semester, on a five point marking system, was: 8%—1's; 23%—2's; 36%—3's; 28%—4's; 5%—failures.
4. It has not been necessary to call a supply teacher. When one of the two teachers had to be absent, the other directed the work of the classes alone. It will never be necessary to call a supply teacher for these classes unless both instructors find it necessary to be absent at the same time.
5. The plan will result in a financial saving to the school district. The average salary of teachers in the Des Moines High-Schools is two thousand dollars a year. The master teacher in charge of these classes will receive \$2,247 this year. The assistant, a young man just out of college, with special training for social science teaching but with no experience, is being paid twelve hundred dollars per year. Stenographic labor and materials for the year will cost not more than one hundred dollars. This will make a total cost of \$3547, a net saving of \$453 under the average salary of two experienced teachers or a net saving of \$947 under the salary of two teachers each receiving the salary of the master teacher in charge of these classes.

6. The master teacher is relieved of much of the drudgery of paper grading and other clerical work and devotes his energies to the important task of teaching and inspiring pupils. Furthermore, the assistant instructor is able to mark test papers during school hours, usually as soon as the test is completed. Most teachers are compelled to grade papers at night, after a hard day's teaching, when they are brain-weary and unable to give them fair and intelligent consideration. The two-teacher plan also makes it possible for the assistant to sit in the room and grade oral recitations while the master teacher devotes his entire thought to the discussion which he is leading. This results in a more accurate record of the quality of the pupil response.

#### Difficulties—

1. The larger classes result in a smaller number of sections of each of these subjects, thereby increasing the number of conflicts in the making of pupil programs. The smaller the school, the more impractical would this plan become.
2. There is less opportunity for participation in class discussions by individual pupils. This is compensated to some extent by dividing the class into small discussion groups at times.
3. The economy of the two-teacher, double size class plan if expanded will depend, to some extent, on the expense that may be necessary for the reconstruction of classrooms. In the newer school buildings the partitions between classrooms in the same wing or unit are usually made of gypsum blocks and can be torn out and rebuilt without much expense. Classrooms that are separated by supporting walls cannot be so easily enlarged.

It is my belief that further experimentation will show that in some departments it will be found possible further to reduce the cost of instruction by assigning one assistant instructor to

two master teachers. In such cases the classroom arrangement should, if possible, conform to the plan suggested by Bagby and Smithey of Roanoke, Virginia, in an article, entitled, "A New Type Classroom for Junior and Senior High-Schools" in the October 1932 issue of the *American School Board Journal*. They propose a unit group of three rooms, consisting of two large classrooms with a smaller conference room or work-room between them. In the conference room are a supply closet and filing cabinet for teaching materials. In such a unit two master teachers could work at the same time in the large classrooms, sharing the services of the assistant teacher according to a pre-arranged schedule. The conference room should be large enough to accommodate groups of fifteen to twenty for special work.

I have no doubt but that the school buildings of the future will contain rooms of several sizes, some of them units such as I have described. Such a modern building is being constructed as an exhibit school on the World's Fair grounds in Chicago. It was planned by Thomas J. Higgins, assistant director of the Bureau of Research and Building Survey of the Chicago schools. Those of you who are interested may find a description of this building in the June 1932 issue of the *N. E. A. Journal*.

In these days of reduced budgets and ever increasing enrollments some of us have been faced with the necessity for increasing the total capacity of our school buildings without enlarging them and have done so by increasing the number of class periods in the school day. Teachers who have been compelled to meet their classes in several different classrooms during the day, making it necessary for them to transport records and teaching materials from room to room, have felt that their teaching efficiency has been considerably impaired thereby. Some of you may be interested in the device which we developed for meeting this problem without sacrificing our long class periods for supervised study.

The standard program in the senior high-schools of Des Moines calls for a five period day, each period sixty-five minutes in length, with each teacher teaching five classes per day.

When the enrollment of Roosevelt High-School outgrew the capacity of the building on this program we lengthened the school day to six periods, and reduced the length of the periods to sixty minutes. Under the former schedule each teacher had his own classroom throughout the day. Under the new schedule if each of the original teachers had been allowed to remain in one room for all five of his classes, the additional teachers would have been compelled to meet their classes in five different classrooms. The plan which we finally developed, as illustrated in Figure 1, assigns six teachers to five classrooms. In this figure the verticle columns represent class period; the horizontal rows give the schedules for each of the classrooms; the letters represent the names of the six teachers assigned to the five rooms. The assignment of teachers to rooms is made in such a way that teachers A and F each have all of their classes in one room. The others each have their classes in only two rooms. No teacher is required to change rooms more than once during the day and that change occurs at his vacant period, giving him plenty of time to make the transfer.

Room	1	2	3	4	5	6
101	A	A	A	A	A	B
102	B	B	B	B	C	C
103	C	C	C	D	D	D
104	D	D	E	E	E	E
105	E	F	F	F	F	F

Figure 1

Plan for Assignment of Six Teachers  
to Five Class-rooms.

When the school outgrows the capacity of the building again, it will be possible to assign seven teachers to five classrooms in the same manner by adding one more period to the day, as shown in Figure 2.

Room	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
101	A	A	A	A	A	B	B
102	B	B	B	C	C	C	C
103	C	D	D	D	D	D	E
104	E	E	E	E	F	F	F
105	F	F	G	G	G	G	G

Figure 2

Plan for Assignment of Seven  
Teachers to Five Class-rooms.

We find it possible to economize in the purchase of reference books and other classroom material by scheduling in the same room as many classes as possible of the same grade of work, both teachers assigned to that room using the same materials.

The efforts which have been made thus far, to find ways to save money, by improving instructional technique and the efficiency of class organization, are, I believe, only a beginning.

"Necessity is the mother of invention." I fully believe that the present financial crisis will bring changes, as the result of continued experimentation, that will permanently affect the teaching methods and classroom management of the future.



## GROUP NO. 2

In the East Room Principal Alden John Burton, Principal of East High-School of Des Moines, Iowa, presided. R. O. Billett, Professor of Education of Illinois State Normal University, presented a paper on *Directed Learning and the Unit Assignment*.

## DIRECTED LEARNING AND THE UNIT ASSIGNMENT

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## 1. Guided and Unguided Experience

**Education in school and out.**—All learning originates in the interaction of the individual with his environment, that is, in experience. Learning is "directed" if the individual's experience is intelligently guided. It is undirected if the individual's experience is unguided. Unguided experience plans nothing, deals in dreary and profitless repetitions, uses methods which are wasteful of human resources, presents many lessons years before the individual can profit by them, and offers still other lessons decades too late. From unguided experience the individual receives no guarantee of his own growth, success, and happiness, and society obtains no promise of continuous improvement. Hence, in terms of the functions of the school, education must be the result of "guided experience" and synonymous with "directed learning." To this end the curriculum should be intelligently planned. The pupil's activities should proceed in an environment scientifically created and artistically controlled. Learning-products should not be matters of chance. Even in the case of projects, of electives, of extra-curriculum activities, or of creative activities, the learning-products though *incidental*, by no means should be *accidental*. Moreover, the results of the educative process should be studied carefully, intensively, and continuously, and

measured if possible in terms of pupil growth. The modern educator recognizes that in the degree to which these conditions do not obtain, the school tends to render a service hardly more significant than that of keeping children a scheduled number of hours per day for the convenience of parents.

**The difficulties of directing learning.**—But the educator of an earlier day was not much concerned with the foregoing considerations. He went serenely on his way with a pleasing consciousness of success. So far as he could see, the job of directing learning in the secondary school needed little further thought or analysis. Pupils were expected to master an established and time-honored curriculum. Educational procedure needed to be influenced in no way by differences in the pupils' abilities, interests, needs, aims, or educational background. As an evidence that "standards" were being held high, only a trifling percentage of the population of secondary-school age ever completed the work of the secondary school. In general the pupils recognized the immediate aim of secondary-school education to be preparation for higher institutions of learning and the ultimate aim to be escape from having to work "as hard as one's parents had worked." **The idea that education should prepare the individual for intelligent participation in a changing social order had not been conceived, much less analyzed.**

The modern educator knows more than his predecessor and therefore is not so sure of himself. He has caught a vision of unrealized possibilities inherent in directed learning both for the individual and for society. Moreover, his strenuous efforts to realize these potential values in actual practice have resulted in enough disappointment and failure to lead him to suspect that stupendous labors must be accomplished before the vision can become a satisfying reality. He perceives that most of the tasks to be performed in their very magnitude mock the puny efforts of individual educators or school systems. He is coming more and more to recognize that significant progress can be made only through collective action. His judgment is amply supported by a mere enumeration of five phases of the work to be done. First, valid objectives toward

which pupils should work must be established. These objectives should range in a harmonious series from the most general and ultimate to the most specific and immediate. In the formulation of these objectives due consideration must be given to the pupil's hereditary make-up, to his normal processes of growth, and to the nature of the social order in which he will participate. Second, a controlled environment must be created wherein the pupil, by means of planned activities and experiences, may attain the various objectives in optimum sequence. Third, the pupil's activities and experiences must be intelligently supervised and directed. Fourth, valid and reliable methods must be employed to determine when each objective has been attained. Fifth, each objective must be so attained that the pupil is challenged to move toward new objectives which have appeared, by no means accidentally, beyond the new horizon.

**Direction of learning becoming less a matter of opinion and guess-work.**—In classroom practice the possibilities of directed learning are merely in the initial stages of realization. Yet important advances in education in the past quarter of a century have tended to replace opinion and guesswork with verified facts concerning many aspects of the problem. During this time, on the basis of considerable experimental evidence, educational thinkers have formulated the general and specific objectives of education around which tentative educational programs may be organized. Studies in educational psychology have made it possible to describe the nature of the child and his normal processes of growth in more reliable terms than ever before. Principles of education and specific methods of teaching in which the profession may have reasonable confidence have been developed and tested. The relative values of various types of subject-matter have undergone a vast amount of empirical inquiry and some scientific study. Beginnings have been made in the measurement of pupil growth. Therefore, to-day the qualified teacher may undertake the difficult task of intelligently directing the learning of pupils with more assurance, than was ever before justifiable, that the results will harmonize with valid objectives of educa-

tion, and that the methods employed will conflict very little if at all with the pupil's inherent nature or his normal processes of growth.

**Fundamental changes in classroom practice.**—As a part of a general movement toward the more efficient and valid direction of learning, the fundamental changes which have occurred in the philosophy, the psychology, and the principles of education have been followed or paralleled by radical changes in classroom procedure. In the secondary school the most thorough-going of these changes in classroom procedure has been introduced under the name of one or another of ten plans, methods, or techniques which in the aggregate may be designated as "plans characterized by the unit assignment." These plans are known in educational literature as (1) the project method, (2) the problem method, (3) differentiated assignments, (4) long-unit assignments, (5) the contract plan, (6) the laboratory plan, (7) individualized instruction, (8) the Morrison plan or some modification, (9) the Winnetka technique or some modification, and (10) the Dalton plan or some modification. A central feature of each of these ten plans is the direction of learning by means of some form of the unit assignment with resultant modification of classroom procedure.

**Some findings of the National Survey.**—In connection with the National Survey of Secondary Education these plans characterized by the unit assignment have been studied intensively and comparatively as provisions for individual differences. Without further comment here, the significant statement is submitted that in the actual practice of outstanding secondary schools these procedures have been found to differ in name only. In arriving at this conclusion the practices of 459 carefully selected schools representative of all sections of the United States were studied in minute detail. A complete statement of the findings have been reported in Part II of a monograph entitled "Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking and Promotion" soon to be published by the United States Office of

Education.<sup>1</sup> Leaving to another time and place the discussion of the completely chaotic terminology which prevails in the schools studied, an effort will be made in this report to answer in some detail the following questions: In terms of the practices of these selected schools, (1) What is a "unit" and a "unit assignment"? (2) How are units and unit assignments planned, revised, and correlated? (3) What type of teaching and learning situations are adapted to the use of the unit assignment? (4) What kind of classroom procedure accompanies the use of the unit assignment?

Even brief answers to these questions will disclose that the various plans characterized by the unit assignment collectively constitute the most extensive and systematic effort so far made to secure more efficient and valid direction of learning in the secondary school.

## 2. Building, Correlating, and Revising Unit Assignments.

**The unit defined in terms of practice.**—In terms of typical practices in the schools studied the unit is one of the co-ordinate, major sub-divisions of a course. However, diligent search has revealed a few instances in which the units of a course are stated as concepts, attitudes, appreciations, knowledges, or skills to be acquired by the pupil. Although such instances are decidedly rare, they suggest that the unit should be defined as a concept, attitude, appreciation, knowledge, or skill to be acquired by the pupil, which if acquired will presumably modify his thinking or his other behavior in a desirable way. Thus defined the units of a course are the objectives of the course. At present the units of any given course in the schools studied are derived empirically and are highly variable from one school to another.

**The unit assignment in terms of practice.**—In the practices of the schools studied the unit assignment consists of the suggested or required activities and experiences planned

<sup>1</sup>Compare also Billett, Roy O. "High-School Pupils' Opinions of the Unit Plan" *School Review* (January, 1932) Vol. XXXIX, pp. 17-32 and Billett, Roy O. "Plans Characterized by the Unit Assignment", *School Review* (November, 1932) Vol. XI, pp. 653-668.

by the teacher to enable the pupil to master the unit, that is to enable him to acquire the desired concept, attitude, appreciation, knowledge, or skill. The unit assignment may be described more specifically in terms of its contents as employed in the schools investigated. In these schools the unit assignment usually consists of: (1) directions for study, (2) references for reading, (3) a list of supplementary projects, (4) an outline of minimum essentials, and (5) a tentative time allotment. The assignment also *may* possess one or more of the following characteristics: (1) an "approach paragraph" to stimulate the pupil's curiosity and interest; (2) an introductory statement of the objectives of the unit; (3) a short list of basic questions; (4) necessary explanations; (5) a word-study list or a vocabulary of difficult words; (6) experiments to be performed; (7) topics for discussion, dramatization, or demonstration; (8) notice of special difficulties to be encountered; (9) samples of how to do the work required; (10) lists of materials and apparatus needed; (11) assignments of individual reports to be made in class; (12) additional elective work; (13) references to correlation with other subjects; and (14) a test on the assignment.

Although the schools studied were selected as the most outstanding in the nation in the use of the unit assignment, it was unusual to find anything resembling such a clear distinction as has been made above between the unit and the unit assignment. In rare instances, the plan of the unit was clearly recognized as the teacher's plan from the teacher's point of view. In these cases the plan of the unit was retained for the teachers use and was not illogically woven into the materials which properly constitute the unit assignment.

**Abbreviations of the unit assignment.**—It is easy to get the impression from the foregoing enumeration of the items which compose the hundreds of assignments analyzed, that unit assignments as presented to the pupils are long and complex. In many cases they are unnecessarily so. Certain tendencies should be noted toward brevity and simplicity of the materials placed in the hands of the pupils at any one time.



In the unit assignments submitted for analysis a distinct tendency was evident for assignments in subjects like typwriting, shorthand, foreign language, and mathematics to be much briefer than assignments in subjects such as English, social studies, and science. The explanation seems to be that in subjects such as those composing the former group the teacher tends to rely on a single textbook. The accepted units and their sequence are rather rigidly determined for the teacher. Moreover, the textbooks to a large extent, are themselves guide sheets suggesting the activities and experiences by means of which the units may be mastered. Hence, in these subjects the unit assignment prepared by the teacher is supplementary to the unit assignment already contained in the textbook and tends to be brief. To make it long is merely to duplicate textual material. On the other hand, in subjects such as those composing the latter group the teacher seems to rely less on a single textbook, probably because no one textbook contains all the desired units in the preferred sequence or because the teacher wishes to recognize several alternative procedures by means of which the unit may be mastered.

Even in subjects such as English, social studies and science, the unit assignment is being abbreviated in a desirable way. Each item of the supplementary and elective materials, so commonly reproduced on the mimeographed assignment or guide sheet, is removed from the guide sheet and placed on a card three inches by five inches or four inches by six inches in size. These cards are filed and used by pupils as catalogue cards are filed and used in a library. The guide sheet, carrying only the fundamental assignment, thus appears much less formidable and confusing to the pupil. Moreover, the costs of clerical help, stencils, and other supplies are reduced, and new electives and supplementary problems or projects may be added at any time to the card index without altering the stencil for the basic assignment.

A further description of actual practices in outstanding secondary schools in connection with other aspects of building, correlating, and revising unit assignments will be given in the ensuing paragraphs. Some of the difficulties confront-



ing educators who are seeking more efficient and valid direction of learning, through the use of the unit assignment, will be revealed; and the reader will be given some basis for judging the adequacy of the methods employed in meeting these difficulties.

**Time allotted to units and sub-divisions of the unit.—**

In the allotment of time to units and sub-divisions of units no hard and fast rules are followed. Generally a tentative time limit is set for each unit. The actual time spent on the unit varies with the nature and the amount of supplementary material involved, and with the abilities of the pupils. The amount of time given to a unit ranges from one week to an entire semester. Analogous observations hold for the sub-divisions of the unit.

**Separate assignments for each ability level.—**Sixty-two per cent of the schools provide differentiated assignments for each ability level. Typically three levels are provided for, though the range is from two to five.

Usually a certain minimum amount of work is prescribed for all pupils. Work beyond this minimum is supplementary in nature and is based upon the individual pupils' special interests and capacities. Bright pupils do more creative work than other pupils, read more, and more frequently make special reports for the benefit of the rest of the group. Since slow pupils frequently need special remedial or coaching help in order to succeed with the work of the first level, there appears to be a tendency to include too much material or too difficult material in the assignment for the lowest level. The arrangement of the materials of the assignment in such a way that pupils advance from tasks which are fundamental and simple to tasks which are more complex and difficult seems to be desirable wherever practicable.

**Choice of topics, references, and problems within the assignment for a given level.—**More than half the schools report that pupils are allowed considerable choice of topics, references, and problems even within the assignment for a given level. Apparently the privilege of choosing is restricted too

often to pupils of the upper levels. For instance, in some schools differentiation of assignments is secured through a list of optional projects. Each pupil masters the minimum assignment. Optional projects are then taken up in accordance with the interests and capacities of the individual pupil. But the slow pupil rarely gets past the minimum requirements. In other schools the assignment is divided into a number of levels, usually three. Each pupil masters the elements of the assignment for the lowest level and then advances as far as he can through the assignments for the upper levels. Again the slow pupil is held to a series of required tasks unbroken by optional work since elective projects appear only in the upper levels, and he rarely gets beyond the assignments for the first level. In only a few schools are pupils working on the lowest level permitted to exercise a considerable degree of choice in the tasks to be performed, but the evidence from these schools highly favors the practice.

Occasionally unit assignments are constructed in three separate and independent forms, one for each of three ability levels. The pupil's previous work in the subject, plus the results of mental tests, aid the teacher in deciding which form each individual pupil shall attempt to master. Such differentiation was found only in schools practicing homogeneous grouping.

**Planning and revising units and unit assignments.**—As a rule the teacher plans the units and unit assignments for her own classes. The completed unit and unit assignment are frequently submitted to the department head, supervisor, or principal for approval. However, in many schools not even this approval is required. In many instances the teacher adapts or modifies units and unit assignments prepared by other agencies such as State departments of education, committees of local teachers of the city or county guided by local supervisors, or authors of published texts. About 8 per cent of the schools report that a special committee of teachers of a given subject plans the units and unit assignments for the teachers of the entire city or county. Occasionally the teacher works out units and unit assignments which are later sub-

mitted to a committee of teachers in the same subject and grade for suggestions or modification. In rare cases the teacher builds the unit and unit assignment cooperatively with the pupils. In such cases, although the pupils in the main are guided toward the acceptance of a unit and a corresponding unit assignment which the teacher has in mind, no one can gainsay that a certain psychological advantage is realized through pupil participation. Moreover, the original unit and unit assignment are often modified by the pupils in worth while ways.

In less than a fifth of the schools the initial planning of the unit and of the unit assignment is followed by conferences of teachers having the same pupils in their classes, with a view to securing correlation.

Nine-tenths of the respondents say that units and unit assignments are revised continuously. In the remaining schools the units and the corresponding unit assignments are revised regularly at the end of each semester or year. Of outstanding importance in the business of revising and improving unit assignments is the teacher's log kept of the teacher's and pupils' experiences with the unit. Such a record offers suggestions to those revising the unit, which would be lost if not systematically recorded. Marked improvement in the units, their sequence, and in the corresponding unit assignment, results when such logs are kept and interpreted under skilled and intelligent direction.

**The correlation of unit assignments.**—In more than three-fifths of the schools studied intensively no systematic effort is made to secure correlation of the assignments in all subjects which a pupil may be carrying at a given time. Such correlation and integration is of great importance in the matter of economy of time of both pupils and teachers, and is not likely to occur as the result of chance. The chief means employed in the schools studied, to secure correlation and integration is the joint meeting or conference which may include: (1) individual teachers from different departments, (2) committees of teachers from different departments, or (3) de-

partment heads. As an interesting supplement to, and preparation for, these conferences each teacher may read critically and systematically her pupil's guide-sheets in all subjects. By this means she discovers many points where correlation of other subjects with her own subject is possible.

Specific instances of correlation as actually practiced in these schools may be cited as follows: (1) assignments in the several subject-matter fields are studied by committees of teachers to eliminate unnecessary repetitions, (2) units are planned to touch more than one subject and credit is allowed in each subject, (3) pupils in vocational agriculture are given farm problems in mathematics, chemistry, and general science, (4) the pupil may choose subjects for English composition dealing with his work in other subjects, (5) themes written in history are checked by English teachers and allowed credit in the English department, and (6) the pupil's required readings in the several courses are carefully checked with a view to securing an optimum number of identical references.

In general the respondents are dissatisfied with their efforts at correlation and integration and frankly report that they are not attempting enough along this line.

**Difficulties encountered in planning, revising, and correlating unit assignments.**—Many respondents emphasize that the work of correlating assignments in the several subject-matter fields can prosper only when a cooperative spirit exists among teachers, department heads, supervisors, and principal. Departmental jealousies, antagonism between supervisors, and a lack of that interest in other subjects and subject-matter fields, which all teachers, department heads, and supervisors should feel, are barriers to improved correlation and integration. However, the chief hindrance to correlation as well as to planning and revising units and unit assignments is lack of time due to heavy teaching, administrative, or extra-curriculum duties. Planning, revising, and correlating unit assignments are regarded entirely too generally as spare-time activities for teachers on a full-time teaching schedule. Most desirable results are not likely to be obtained until teachers

cooperating in this work are allowed a reasonable margin of time in which to do it effectively.

Other difficulties which make uphill work of the planning, revision, and correlation of assignments, in the frequency with which they are mentioned by the respondents are: (1) the teacher's lack of training for, and experience in the work, (2) the impedimenta of rigidly prescribed courses of study, of state or local syllabi, and of state examination requirements, (3) the fact that any given class may contain pupils of all abilities, interests, and aims (as for example, college-preparatory, commercial, and industrial-arts pupils); and (4) the necessity of keeping each class abreast at all times in the correlation of assignments of four or more subjects. None of these are inseparable under existing school organization. For example, the last-mentioned may be overcome by the application of a device employed by Miss Parkhurst in the Children's University School in New York whereby no pupil may advance in any subject beyond a certain pre-established point until he has brought all his other subjects up to given points.

### **3. Classroom Procedure and the Unit Assignment.**

#### **Types of teaching or learning situations recognized.—**

The use of the unit assignment is accompanied by noteworthy changes in classroom procedure. Most respondents cooperating in this study believe that, as a matter of convenience, three types of teaching or learning situations may be recognized namely, (1) the problem-solving or science type, (2) the appreciation type, and (3) the drill type. These are not regarded as types in the sense that one may be completely isolated from the other, but rather in the sense that in any given class period one type may dominate the teaching and learning situation sufficiently to make it fairly accurate to say that the work is of a particular type, either problem-solving, appreciation or drill.

#### **Recognized phases of the teaching and learning cycle.—**

In these schools, the teaching and learning cycle is typically divided into four phases: (1) the introduction, (2) the indi-

vidual-work (or laboratory) period, (3) the period of class discussion, and (4) the testing period. No formal boundaries are indicated which separate one phase from the other. It should be noted that not all respondents are satisfied with the terms used above to designate the major phases of the learning cycle adapted to the use of the unit assignment. For example, in some schools a fifth and at times a sixth phase, namely, (5) re-teaching and (6) re-testing are added. In most schools studied, however, re-teaching and re-testing proceed continuously throughout the individual-work (or laboratory) period and the period of class discussion. Another term occasionally preferred for the "introduction" is the "planning period." Some respondents divide the introduction into two phases, the "pre-test" or "pre-view," and the "presentation" or "assignment." The second step is at times called a period of "directed work," a period of "supervised study" or a "laboratory period." The last-mentioned term in many respects seems more indicative of the pupil-and teacher-activities during the period than the term "individual-work period."

**Purpose of, methods employed in, and time allotments for each phase.**—In the paragraphs which follow, the nature of the classroom procedure found adaptable to the use of the unit assignment in the schools studied will be summarized. The purpose of each phase of the teaching and learning cycle, the methods employed in each phase, and the proportionate amount of time allotted to each phase, will be given.

**The introductory phase.**—The primary purpose of the introduction is to give the pupil an overview of the unit and to arouse his interest. The period also serves to diagnose pupils' needs, to locate pupils needing special help, and to determine the pupil's preparation for study of the new unit. About a fourth of the schools report the use of initial tests during the introductory period. Scores made on this test are compared later with scores made on a final mastery test and the degree of progress made by each pupil is thus known.

**Methods used during the introductory step.**—During the introductory period the teacher usually explains the purpose

and general content of the new unit, questions the pupils orally, and stimulates class discussion. In the order of frequency of mention, the methods employed during the introductory period are as follows:

1. Class discussion.
2. Purpose and general content of new unit are made clear by the teacher.
3. Oral questioning.
4. Methods by which pupil is to study the unit are outlined.
5. Class meets and works as one group.
6. Relation of new unit to previously mastered ideas or facts is developed through questions, suggestions, or explanations by the teacher.
7. Unit is told to the class by the teacher as a story, or sketched by the teacher in a talk or lecture.
8. A written, objective pre-test is given.
9. Assignments, units, and problems are furnished pupil in multigraphed, mimeographed, or printed form.
10. Assignments, units, and problems are written on the blackboard to be copied by the pupil.
11. Assignments, units, and problems are given orally by the teacher and copied by the pupil.
12. Hypotheses are advanced for the solution of problems involved.
13. Pupils are given a written test to determine the extent to which they have secured an accurate overview.
14. Introductory step is repeated for those who do not pass the test satisfactorily.
15. A written pre-test, essay type, is given.

Obviously these methods (or teacher- and pupil-activities) are by no means mutually exclusive.



The least frequently employed procedure is the written pre-test of the essay type although the written objective pre-test is employed more or less frequently in 61 per cent of the schools studied. In less than one-half of the schools a written test is given to determine whether the pupil has secured an accurate overview of the unit. Most of these repeat the introductory step for pupils who do not perform satisfactorily on the test. Perhaps all too often time is wasted because the unit assignment is not presented in typed or printed form.

**Time required for the introductory step.**—Three-fourths of the schools report that no approximately uniform proportion of the total time given to the unit, is allotted to the introductory step, even for the units of a given subject. The median estimate of the remaining respondents is that 10 per cent of the total time given to a unit is allotted to the introductory step.

**The individual-work (or laboratory) period.**—All schools report that the chief purpose of the individual-work (or laboratory) period is the mastery of the unit by the individual pupil. To a fourth of the respondents mastery implies that certain adaptations in the pupil will result from his work with the materials of the unit assignment. Other purposes occasionally mentioned are: (1) the development of initiative and self-direction, and (2) the providing of opportunities for self-expression and creative achievement.

**Methods used during the individual-work (or laboratory) period.**—The individual-work (or laboratory) period is emphatically a time of directed study. During this period the classroom is made a study room or laboratory wherein the pupils read references and collect data bearing upon the mastery of the unit; during this time the teacher observes the pupil's work, points out errors, suggests better study methods, and answers questions raised by individual pupils. Several respondents take pains to emphasize that the teacher does not answer questions until the pupil's own resources of time and ability have been exhausted. Other methods employed

during the individual-work (or laboratory) period in the order of frequency of mention are:

1. Teacher directs informal discussions of common difficulties.
2. Pupil works on supplementary topic of his own choosing, with approval of teacher.
3. Pupils work part of the time individually and part of the time in small groups.
4. Teacher gives objective tests to discover pupil progress.
5. Teacher calls for brief reports from individual pupils on common difficulties.
6. Capable pupils at times instruct other pupils.
7. Pupil formulates or organizes his solution of (or work done on) the problem, unit or assignment.
8. Teacher gives subjective or essay-type tests to discover pupil progress.

The activities of the teacher and of the pupils during this period suggest the inapplicability of the name individual-work period. The term "laboratory period" may be preferable since the pupils' activities are by no means exclusively individual and the work of this period is decidedly analogous to the work for a long time common to laboratory periods in science and industrial arts. During this period discussions are frequently held on common difficulties. Such discussions usually involve only small groups of pupils to whom the difficulty is immediate and real. The period is often one of mutual aid wherein the more successful pupils contribute to the instruction of the less successful. The period is not only a time of collecting data but also a time for organizing and interpreting data. Finally the period is a time of occasional testing usually by means of objective tests, sometimes by means of essay tests. The results of these tests are important helps to the teacher in judging the progress of individual pupils and in planning remedial teaching. The point is often

stressed that pupils do not work on elective supplementary topics until the minimum requirements have been met. Only the more capable pupils ever get beyond the rigid requirements of the first level. The question has already been raised whether a certain degree of option concerning work to be done might not be as wholesome for slow pupils as for their more capable fellows.

In some schools the preceding methods are supplemented as follows: Conferences and excursions are scheduled occasionally during the individual-work (or laboratory) period. Additional teacher activities include the raising of questions, marking finished work, conferring with small groups, arranging for supplementary reports, and keeping quiet, each as the occasion seems to demand. Time is frequently given for demonstrations by individual pupils, of interesting results obtained.

The proportion of time given to any of the various methods employed during the individual-work (or laboratory) period differs with the subject-matter. For example, the reading of references and the collection of data occupy a much greater percentage of this period in social studies than in mathematics; although probably the contribution which mathematics has made to modern civilization would be more apparent to pupils if more than the usual amount of time were given to the reading of well-selected references.

**Time required for individual-work (or laboratory) period.**

—More than half the schools report that no approximately uniform proportion of the total time taken by a unit is allotted to the individual-work (or laboratory) period, even among the units of a given subject. The median estimate of the remaining respondents is that 54 per cent of the total time given to a unit is allotted to the individual-work (or laboratory) period. However, for pupils composing "honors" or "self-reliant" groups this proportion is often increased to as much as 90 per cent.

**The period of class discussion.**—Four-fifths of the respondents report two purposes for the period of class discussion:

first, to give pupils a chance to interchange ideas and information gathered primarily during the individual-work (or laboratory) period; and second, to give pupils an opportunity to correct wrong notions which they may have acquired. To three-fifths of the respondents an additional purpose of the period of class discussion is to test the pupil's ability to present previously collected and organized facts and principles in such a way as to arouse a desirable emotional attitude in his audience or to convince its intelligence of the soundness of a position taken. Other purposes occasionally reported are: (1) to furnish an opportunity for summarization, (2) to give practice in oral discussion, (3) to give practice in speaking before an audience, (4) to socialize experience, (5) to stimulate thinking, (6) to secure additional association through audition, (7) to fix impressions through expression (8) to show how applications of the unit may be made, (9) to develop the main concepts of the unit through the pooling of information and experiences, and (10) to bring out additional problems and thus lead up to the study of the next unit.

**Methods used in period of class discussion.**—Classroom procedure during the period of class discussion centers around floor talks and oral or written reports given by the pupils on some phase of the unit or some related supplementary topic. These talks and reports are interspersed with debates or general discussions. The teacher presents additional material of interest not thought of or discovered by the class. Pupils making the best floor talks or reports are rewarded in some schools by having their talks or reports recorded on disk records to be reproduced in other class sections or at community gatherings. Sometimes their work is "broadcasted" to other classes through a system of loud speakers. The pupils are not required to defend their solutions of the problems involved in the unit, or to present organization outlines or briefs of the unit for criticism as often as one might expect. A few teachers report that they complete this phase of the work on the unit during the individual-work (or laboratory) period. During the period of class discussion the teacher may summarize the work of the class, but often this summarization is a coop-

erative function of both teachers and pupils, or of a committee of capable pupils.

Other methods frequently reported are: (1) pupils give demonstrations or present displays of work done in connection with the unit, (2) small groups or committees offer their interpretation of the unit, (3) lectures are given by outside speakers, (4) motion pictures or stereopticon slides related to the unit are shown and (5) excursions may be taken to acquire necessary or desirable information bearing upon the unit.

**Time required.**—More than half the respondents state that, of the total time allotted to the unit no approximately uniform proportion is devoted to the period of class discussion even in the units of a given subject. The median estimate for the remaining schools is that 31 per cent of the total time allotted to the unit is given to the period of class discussion.

**Tests and the testing period.**—Only two per cent of the respondents state that tests serve solely as bases for the awarding of marks. Eighty per cent say that tests are used only as a means of discovering whether pupils have mastered the unit assignment or its component parts. Additional purposes occasionally mentioned are: (1) to furnish a basis for re-teaching, or to determine where to concentrate review, (2) to motivate pupils, to stimulate them to organize their work, and to induce them to review, and (3) to enable the teacher to evaluate the success of her methods.

**When tests are given.**—The brief testing period which follows the period of class discussion is devoted exclusively to final testing for mastery. It by no means constitutes the entire testing program as this report so far has shown. Before pupils begin work on a unit, pre-tests are always given in four per cent of the schools; are generally given in seventeen per cent; and are occasionally given in forty per cent. That is, with varying frequencies, pre-tests are given in sixty-one per cent of all schools reporting. In general, the data indicate that pupils rarely show on the pre-test a degree of mastery

which justifies excusing them from any considerable portion of the unit. However, pupils who are excused from work on all or on part of the unit usually work on elective supplementary projects. Sometimes they assist with the instruction of other pupils, do free reading, or work on other subjects which require their time. In most schools a series of tests are given throughout the individual-work (or laboratory) period and the period of class discussion covering the several sub-divisions or component parts of the unit; and comprehensive final examinations often covering several units for the purposes of review, are given at the end of the semester.

**By whom tests are prepared.**—In ninety per cent of the schools the teacher prepares all tests and examinations for his or her classes, usually subject to the approval of the department head, the principal, or the supervisor. Several teachers doing work in the same subjects and grades may cooperate in the preparation of tests. In a few schools the tests are centrally prepared by the department head, the supervisor, or members of the department of measurement or research.

**Form in which tests are given.**—Standardized tests are seldom used to measure progress or mastery. Most schools make judicious use of subjective or essay-type tests and of oral tests. Objective tests are often used in printed or mimeographed form.

**What the tests measure.**—Practically all respondents believe their objective tests to measure only information and factual materials, or skills. Most teachers are relying on supplementary techniques to enable them to judge the extent to which concepts, attitudes or appreciations are being acquired. Among these supplementary methods may be mentioned the following: (1) close observation of pupil's conduct and reactions, (2) oral examinations, and (3) problems presented to the pupil requiring a statement of what should be done under a specific set of conditions.

#### 4. Conclusion

##### **Potentialities of the unit assignment and present practice.**

—In concluding this report the opinion is ventured that the possibilities of successful direction of learning by means of the unit assignment and accompanying changes in classroom procedure, far transcend anything so far accomplished. The "unit" sets up a definite and relatively immediate objective toward which the pupil may work. The "unit assignment" suggests the activities and experiences by means of which the pupil may attain his objective. The classroom procedure employed provides for intelligent guidance of the pupil's activities and experiences. The validity of any objective and of the suggested activities and experiences is not necessarily a matter of guesswork, but may be established to the satisfaction of the most exacting if the price is paid in terms of human intelligence, time, and effort. Units or unit assignments, or both, may be differentiated with comparative ease to provide for the different interests, aims, needs, or abilities of the pupils. The teaching and learning cycle which accompanies the use of the unit assignment in outstanding schools is highly flexible and adaptable, favoring the development of that mental attitude on the part of the pupil which is the essence of freedom in classroom work,<sup>1</sup> offering reasonable opportunities for original and creative work without encouraging situations wherein the pupils' energies are dissipated from day to day by the pursuit of transient and unrelated objectives.

**A continuous research program needed.**—However, it should be a matter of concern that the units and unit assignments now in use in the best secondary-schools are purely the results of empirical and often hasty analyses of existing subject matter. Only rarely do the units in use rest on even meager research into pupils' normal activities, psychological stages of growth, present needs, immediate interests, or probable adult needs. Such strikingly important matters as the determination of the optimum sequence of units, the corre-

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<sup>1</sup>See Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education*, The MacMillan Company, New York, 1916, p. 357.



lation of assignments, the differentiation of units and assignments for pupils of different interests, abilities, needs, and aims, for the most part are arrived at unsystematically by workers laboring under the pressure of teaching and administrative burdens which preclude the use of the methods of scientific research even if the workers were trained in the use of such procedures.

The improvement of practice could be immediately accelerated if in conjunction with this wide-spread empirical attack on the problem of directed learning a constant research program were kept continuously under way directed by the ablest research workers available. Much of the research work would produce materials of nation-wide usefulness, certainly needing only minor modifications for local situations. Classroom teachers and supervisors would be constantly supplied with the products of research and would give such materials the acid test of classroom use. The research program would be constantly oriented by criticisms emanating directly from the classroom. In the writer's opinion, the problem of correlating an extensive research program with the present wide-spread empirical attempts to improve units and unit assignments now in use, is one which should receive the attention of state and national organizations interested in secondary education. The vast amount of effort now being expended to improve the direction of learning should be coordinated and a greater certainty of continuous improvement should be assured.

Mr. C. C. Certain, Chairman of the Committee on Library Standards, Detroit, Michigan, read his paper, *High-School Library Standards*.

## HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY STANDARDS

C. C. CERTAIN,  
Detroit, Michigan.

It was fifteen years ago, in 1918, that I presented to this Department, the Report on Standard Library Organization

and Equipment for Secondary-Schools, which the Department adopted and which was adopted also by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools, the American Library Association, and various state and city boards of education.

**The Old Standards.**—These fifteen years have seen the standards realized, in some cases. Miss Mary E. Hall, librarian of the Girls Central High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., an indefatigable worker and leader in the movement for better school libraries, in a letter to me last January commencing upon the ideals set by these standards said, "I did not think I should ever see New York City actually having such high-school libraries, but the Theodore Roosevelt and the new DeWitt Clinton High School do actually embody all of your recommendations, I think, and most of the new high-schools now will be built to meet 'The Certain Standards.' It took from 1916, when the Department of Secondary-School Principals, the Department of Superintendence, and the American Library Association adopted them, to 1929 for New York to put them into effect fully in some of its best high schools."

In many more instances, however, the standards of 1918 have not yet been attained. There is, moreover, an almost universal danger of retrogression at this particular time.

It is most important that the work started by this Department more than fifteen years ago, which has proved to be so constructive a thing, resulting as it has in the establishment and growth of libraries admirable in every detail, must not be lost now. The object, then, should be to maintain these libraries in the high schools, which in these times can be *done only* if every one of you, realizing the irreparable losses which must result if determined effort is not put forth, works to make the libraries secure.

**Administration Creed.**—It is the part of the high-school principal to lay hold of this idea, putting it along with the other indispensables that make up his administrative creed in these days of emergency. He needs to say to himself and

to others, repeatedly, writes one member of your Committee on Standards, that

- (1) The library *is a necessity* in the high-school;
- (2) That economies in education *cannot* be made at the expense of *essential* library service;
- (3) That below a certain standard the library *cannot* function; it must not become crippled and ineffective;
- (4) The library book collection is valuable; it must not be *divided* and *lost*;
- (5) The library has ever been an economical and efficient unit in the high school; it must be utilized now, as never before, to the ends of economy and efficiency;
- (6) Only the library to-day can give the buoyancy of spirit and the relief of intellectual interest necessary to carry the high school over the shoals of the depression.

**The Importance of Discussion.**—There needs to be much open discussion of secondary-school libraries. In one sense, we may point back to a definite date, when standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools was *adopted* and widely *published*, but we must not be unmindful of the fact that the standards as adopted then were the outgrowth of much study and consideration, and of much intelligent discussion throughout the membership of this Department. It is true, therefore, that while the Standards were being drawn up in the form of a committee report, the library concept was becoming more and more clearly defined in the minds of secondary-school principals in every section of the United States. The standards therefore represented actually a consensus of what in the minds of high-school principals the library should mean to the school, and what status it should have with reference to working staff, book collection, housing, equipment and regularly budgeted financial support.

Any plans, it seems to me, considered now for the development of new library standards should recognize the fact that these standards must be a development resulting from group thinking by the Department of Secondary-School Principals over a period of time—say, two or three years. We need, therefore, to think of the development of these standards as something that will rise out of the present distressing conditions incident to the depression.

It is peculiarly the duty of this organization, which sponsored the original Standards, to undertake to set up new standards now. You, who know so well the necessary services the libraries perform in your own high schools, are the ideal group to formulate and maintain successful standards.

Other groups have tried, but with results that are somewhat disappointing.

The high-school principal who has seen the benefits to pupils and teachers alike of efficient library service is the preferred person to study the problem of library standards. He knows the value of the librarian, capable and generous in her work, *who may contribute* more to the success of the school than any other one person serving there.

**The Work of a Good Librarian.**—Here are the actual duties of one such librarian, and there are many, many more like her:

1. Compile book orders from requests and suggestions of the faculty and from careful study of reviews, bibliographies, and the like.
2. Check the new books when they arrive, stamp them with the school stamp.
3. Classify them, label them, and make shelf-list cards.
4. Catalog them, making author, title, subject, and analytic cards.
5. Circulate these books to the students and faculty.
6. Assemble collections, at teachers' requests, and send them to classrooms.

7. Care for and circulate maps throughout the building, as required.
8. Care for and circulate other visual materials—slides, pictures, and the like.
9. Order, check, distribute, renew, re-check pictures from Children's Museum.  
(27 exhibits of 8 or 10 pictures each last month, a low average for this work is 8 hrs. a month).
10. Open, check, and strip magazines for the racks.
11. Prepare bulletins and special exhibits either to celebrate holidays or to correlate with school work.
12. Be on the lookout for supplementary material for all school subjects, mount pictures, collect clippings and the like.
13. Prepare request references for teachers. Teachers send to the library for a picture of a certain object, for references on some topic which children will come to the library to work on.
14. Give regular instruction in the use of books and libraries.
15. Send monthly report to the board of education office.
16. Attend monthly department meeting.
17. Keep detailed records of students sent by individual teachers, and departments for study and reference.
18. Hold meetings of library staff (the student helpers) on alternate weeks.
19. Attend faculty meetings on alternate weeks.

A consideration of this list of duties performed by the school librarian leads us to recognize that in striving to maintain the standards established at so much effort, and in considering a desirable content of new standards, one phase of the work may claim our immediate attention. It concerns the status of the librarian and of the library in the school.

**The need of teacher cooperation.**—We will agree, I believe, that the librarian's first duty is to enable pupils and teachers to get the information in books. I have enumerated typical duties incident to accomplishing this. The librarian's work is occasionally hampered, however, by lack of understanding of her peculiar problems on the part of other faculty members.

Take an example: The gong rings. Books are snapped shut and more or less noisily replaced on the shelves, chairs are pushed back and one group departs. Almost immediately, another group enters—perhaps 80 children. From 25 to 40 surround the librarian.

"What did the Greeks make their swords out of?" asks one boy.

"You might look on the 938 shelf," replies the librarian. "It is labelled 'Greece'."

Two dozen are clamoring. Each has a separate topic to look up during this period, and each wants—and needs—personal help from the librarian. One youngster has to report, next hour, on the topic, "Does a dog have a language." Another must know, right away, "What is a crustacean?" A third wants "a book called 'The Flying Dutchman'." It is more than likely that, with the best will in the world to cooperate, the teachers have none the less neglected to advise the librarian in advance of the nature of these assignments, to enable her to have the material ready.

**The problem of classroom book sets.**—I would like to bring to your attention briefly another aspect of the status of the library in the school. This concerns classroom book collections. Two important principles, if well understood, will aid in the solution of the classroom library problem. The first is that for the maximum effect in teaching with the use of books, books must be readily at hand in the classrooms where the teacher and the children are at work. A second is that to secure the maximum effect in the utilization of the high-school's book resources in operating these localized classroom book sets or collections, the library must be employed as a central-

ized distributing agency. The librarian must be made to see that loans from the library fall into two classes: loans to individual readers and loans to classroom groups. The rules that apply to either one cannot and must not be made to apply to the other. The work that your committee has so far accomplished in the development of new high-school library standards includes a more elastic loan system than has been known in the past—a system that will make the classroom library a series of mobile units of books, continuously going out to classrooms on demand, where needed, and continuously returning to the library to prevent idleness of the books. The very core of the idea is that there are no idle books, either on the shelves of the library or on the desks or in the closets of the classrooms.

Now this is a very different matter from the tons of books that go into classroom libraries to gather dust and to languish idly week after week when the class no longer needs the volumes put there for a certain phase of the course. The enormous waste in this kind of thing is at once apparent in the large high school. Take a single instance, say English II, of which there may be fifteen sections or classes. During the time for the study of Homer's *Odyssey*, there will be fifteen classroom collections rich with volumes on Greek life, geography, history, legends, stories, myths, art, and every book is paying for its keep there many times over by the constant reference made to it, and by the strengthened interest with which the pupils carry forward their reading of the *Odyssey*. But at the most, this period of active use will not extend beyond four weeks or so, for next on the program will be Robert Louis Stevenson's *Kidnapped* with a set-up of supplementary reading in English and Scottish history, with related stories and tales. This will be followed by another literary study, and another, in each case with no return, in the classroom, to the books on Ancient Greece, or to the books on Scottish history.

But in the meantime, what has been happening across the corridor where the class on world history is meeting? Here,



there has been a dearth of books on ancient history for the school's complete resources in this subject have been tied up in fifteen English classrooms where they have been in actual use less than one-fifth of the time.

These two matters, that of cooperation and coordination of the teaching faculty and the library, and the question of classroom libraries, need immediate attention, in order that they may be satisfactorily adjusted in the new standards.

**Library Instruction.**—A third matter concerns the instruction given children in the use of books and libraries. A number of ways have been suggested to accomplish this.

One is to use slides in connection with a talk by the librarian. The slides show catalog cards, books on the shelves, children using the catalog, and the like. In this way, many children may be instructed at a time. The drawback is that, with no activities involved, the pupils do not remember well.

Another method is for the librarian to meet small groups, and talk to them, assigning some small activities. The pupils remember the instruction a little better, but it puts a tremendous extra burden on the librarian.

A third course is for the librarian to prepare lessons to be given by classroom teachers. She also sends illustrative books to the classroom, together with the lesson.

A fourth method, which has proved economical and successful, is to have the librarian prepare three series of mimeographed lesson sheets. The first series consists of instructions in library use. These are given the pupils for study. When a pupil feels he has mastered its contents, he returns the set and receives another activities sheet. Here, he is directed to find information, or to answer questions which illustrate the facts given in Series I. The third series is an answer-key to Series II. If the questions on Series II are designed to be answered simply, in a word or two, a student can check and score the papers.

Many phases of library use can be taught in this manner. The use of the dictionary, the encyclopedia, the Reader's

Guide, Grainger's index of Poetry, The World Almanac, Who's Who, the use of the index and table of contents of books may all be treated in this way.

Although the standards set forth, fifteen years ago, in "Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary-Schools" have been realized in some instances, many libraries still fall short. There is, moreover, grave danger of retrogression at the present time. It is the part of high-school principals to maintain these libraries, established at so much effort, because school libraries are essential to educational efficiency, economy and well being.

**What's to be done about New Standards.**—The old standards were the outgrowth of much discussion and group thinking. New standards should develop similarly. The Department of Secondary-School Principals is peculiarly suited to develop new standards, since they, more than any other group, understand the position of the library in relation to the school. Non-educational groups have attempted to set standards for school libraries with disappointing results. Knowing little of school conditions, their concept of the work of the school librarian bears little resemblance to conditions as they actually exist.

Three aspects of the library's status in the school should have immediate consideration. The first concerns a closer co-operation of the librarian and the faculty. The second is the problem of the classroom library; and the third, is the problem of library instruction.

In December, 1931, I contributed an article to the *Junior-Senior High-School Clearing House*, entitled "An Empirical Basis for Scientific Standards in School Libraries." In this article, I formulated, from data in my possession, an outline for the organization of new library standards. This outline is characterized by definiteness and should constitute the basis for scientific standards.

The outline emphasizes organization and administration, on the one hand, and library service and use, on the other.

Under *Organization and Administration*, the subdivisions are: (1) Appropriations, (2) Housing, (3) Equipment, (4) Staff Organization and Administration, and (5) Definite Library Policy in High-School Administration.

Under *Library Service and Use* the subdivisions are: (1) Professional Care of the Library, (2) Service to Readers by the Librarian, (3) Instruction of Pupils by the Librarian, (4) Use of Library by Pupils, and (5) Use of the Library by Teachers.

With these points before you, I wish now to move:

(1) That your committee on High-School Library Standards be continued, with a slightly enlarged personnel, to be chosen by the President of your Department in cooperation with the chairman of the committee;

(2) That this enlarged committee, during the next year, prepare for you standards developed around the ten points that I have enumerated above;

(3) That the standards developed shall include two phases, recognizing the need for both quantitative and qualitative *desiderata* in high-school library evaluation and appraisal.

### GROUP NO. 3

This group joined with a section of the National High-School Inspectors. Milo H. Stuart, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, in charge of Secondary Education, of Indianapolis, Indiana, presided.

Dr. Wm. C. Bagley, Columbia University, read a paper entitled, *New Standards for New Schools*.

## NEW STANDARDS FOR NEW SCHOOLS

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY,  
Columbia University,  
New York City.

When I was asked to discuss with you the topic, "New Standards for New Schools," I accepted without fully realizing the difficulties that my engagement involved. The difficulties were quite apparent when I began to attack the problem, and they centered about the term, "new schools." What new schools are implied? Do we mean the so-called activity schools, or the schools that follow the Dalton Plan, or the schools that are taught according to Morrison's Mastery Formula? Or do we mean the schools that will be developed to meet the needs of society when the dreams of the technocrats come true and every family can live on the basis of twenty thousand dollars a year with a minimum of work and a maximum of leisure? Or do we mean the schools that we shall have if our national development takes the reverse course and, after scrapping most of our machinery, we return to a simpler type of civilization represented to-day by those groups of the industrially unemployed who have gone back to handicraft production and the barter system?

Quite unable to settle on any one of these alternatives there remained nothing else for me to do but to make my own interpretation of the topic even if it does some violence to the original wording. What I should like to discuss with you is this question: Can American education, in view of the course that it has taken and is taking, reflect certain standards and ideals that appear, on the surface at least, to be rather significant to our national life?

The unique feature of American education is its non-selective character on the upper levels. Every civilized country has made elementary education universal; in our country the movement has been steadily toward universal secondary education, and there are indications that another generation will

see something that will be closely akin to universal higher education.

This upward expansion of mass-education can be clearly traced in the steadily increasing growths of the high-school enrollment since 1890 and the corresponding increase in the college enrollment since 1910. In a more fundamental way, it can be traced in the gradual modification of educational policies and practices. Free, tax-supported secondary education inevitably meant that all the children of all the people should have access to the high-schools. When, in 1872, Judge Cooley of the Michigan Supreme Court handed down the decision which permitted the people of Kalamazoo to tax themselves for the support of a high-school, universal secondary education was written in the stars. It did not come at once, of course; but from 1890 on there was an increasing relaxation of standards which meant in the end that every child above the level of feeble-mindedness who entered the first grade should have a chance to graduate from high-school.

I have on other occasions referred to the avidity with which our profession seized upon the results of the so-called transfer experiments in order to discredit the doctrine of mental discipline—for nothing stood so stubbornly in the way of upward expansion of mass-education as did the exacting character of the secondary curriculum, the best justification of which was its alleged disciplinary value. The evidence from the experiments, while discrediting a naive conception of mental discipline, was not only far from sufficient to annihilate the doctrine *in toto*; it could be much more justly used to support an intelligent interpretation of the doctrine. But American education at the time wished above everything else to knock the doctrine of formal discipline into the limbo of outmoded theories—and it succeeded.

Another interesting and significant movement began about 1908 with the publication of Leonard Ayres's monograph, "Laggards in Our Schools." Retardation and elimination were assailed on every hand as evils that must be eradicated. School systems began to vie with one another in the

reduction in the number of average pupils in the lower grades and in sending pupils through school on schedule. To-day in many school systems it is tacitly understood that no one shall fail of promotion.

One of my students, in studying the New York State Regents' examinations over a period of forty years, found that questions which once appeared in the ninth-grade papers were transferred a few years later to the tenth-grade papers, and still later to the eleventh-grade papers.

Still another symptom of the deep, underlying forces that were transforming American education has been the increasing popularity of the doctrine of interest and the total rejection of the doctrine of effort. This change of front began in the last decade of the 19th century and has progressed ever since with increasing momentum.

All of these changes and many others were usually urged on the basis of humane considerations, and, speaking by and large, they were put into effect because of this appeal. The increasing wealth and prosperity of the country helped not a little, for an easing of requirements and a relaxation of standards are more readily acceptable in flush times than they are when the conditions of life are sterner and more exacting.

The results of the upward expansion of mass-education brought about by the policy of relaxing standards and easing requirements are in some respects gratifying and in other respects disappointing. There can be little doubt that our investment in physical education and health education has given us a generation of young men and young women who are healthier and more vigorous than were their fathers and mothers at their age. We do not have quantitative evidence to disprove Mr. Mencken's charge that our vast educational expansion has not caused any improvement in the electorate, but it is my own judgment in reviewing the fourteen presidential-election campaigns that I can personally remember that the appeals to prejudice have decreased, that there is less billingsgate, less indulgence in personal abuse, and on the whole an appeal on a higher plane of reason and informed intelligence.

This might be indisputably established if someone had the patience to make a careful study of the campaign literature from 1880 to 1932.

On the other hand, there is evidence that our schools do not do for our masses what the schools of some other countries do for their masses. I am speaking now not of the secondary-schools, for ours are essentially non-selective and are not to be compared with the highly selective secondary-schools of other countries; I am speaking of the mass schools of other countries in comparison with our mass schools.

One of the most efficient school systems in the world is that of France—efficient, I think, not only by French standards but by any standard that could be reasonably applied. Yet the French schools are about as far from what our American ideal pictures good schools to be as the two poles. The secondary-schools are deliberately planned to produce an intellectual *elite*—a relatively small group of men and women from whom the leadership of the nation will be recruited. Notwithstanding this fact, however, the instruction in the elementary school is of a high order, and from a large proportion of the pupils, standards of performance are exacted that would make the results obtained in our best elementary schools look superficial and mediocre. In the elementary school as in the secondary-school, the ideals and standards are intellectual in type, and somehow or other the great majority of the children constituting in the elementary school a quite unselected group are stimulated by these standards.

And with what results? Well, for one thing the French masses read books. In every village there is a bookshop and it is well patronized. Our *per capita* production of books other than fiction increased very markedly during the decade ending in 1929—but even then we were far behind the *per capita* production of non-fiction books in France.

The schools also are remarkably successful in teaching the mother-tongue so that the children—again the children of the masses—not only use the language effectively but actually love it. Here the achievements seem to be far beyond those



of other countries. An English journalist familiar with French education has made the following statement:

"No Englishman could have visited the French front during the war without being struck by the lucidity and skill with which anyone in command of anything, from the most illustrious general to the sergeant in the trench, could expound his job or enlarge on the strategical position to the stranger . . . In a country where children are educated to regard accomplished talk as part of the equipment of life, audiences are not tolerant of the blundering and floundering which are regarded as venial in men of weight in this country (England)." (J. A. Spender in his *Public Life*.)

American educators regard French education as ultra-formal, static, and unprogressive. The only answer is that, beyond peradventure of a doubt, it gets in an admirable degree the results that it seeks, not only on the intellectual side but also on the side of character building. Here again, American educators would condemn the system, for the French schools actually teach morals directly and systematically. And they have had to "make good," for beginning in 1882 a series of legal enactments removed the educational system entirely from the influence of the church. This policy could not have been continued had there been increases in crime and immorality. The French government took no chances. Religious training was replaced by an elaborate system of secular moral instruction—a system which American educators would have believed admirably well adapted to defeat its very purpose. But it did not and, so far as I know there is no country in which the expansion of mass-education has been so clearly followed by decreasing curves of crime, decreasing drunkenness, decreasing death-rates from diseases traceable to alcohol, decreasing rates of illegitimate births, decreasing rates of venereal infection among the conscripts, and other kinds of moral progress that can be measured by social statistics instead of being merely claimed without evidence by emotional doctrinaires.

French education is almost everything that American educational theory condemns out of hand. It is formal, sys-

tematic, intellectual, uniform, centralized. Its structure implies a firm faith in the possibility of mental discipline. It is so rigorous on the secondary level that only a small number of those who enter the *lycée* or the *collège* qualify for the *baccalaureat*. From the standpoint of American theory, it would seem to be the last educational system in the world to produce creative talent; yet I know of no modern nation that surpasses France in painting, sculpture, and *belles lettres*, and in the field of creative science her record since the death of Pasteur is one that certainly would not make that great master ashamed of his fellow-countrymen.

There is another ideal that is reflected very strongly in French educational practice. I refer to the ideal of fine workmanship,—the ideal of doing one's work in the very best way that one can do it without reference to any extrinsic reward that it may bring. In many ways, American educational theory encourages scamped work—the "get by" attitude as Morrison calls it. The use of achievement tests, unless carefully safeguarded, may easily compound this evil. Standards that are based on norms or averages are more than likely to tempt both pupils and teachers to rest content with mediocrity rather than to encourage everyone to do his or her best. Standards based upon ideals are far more likely to have the latter effect.

It is for this reason, I think, that the other English-speaking countries in which our American achievement tests have been given show, in every case that has come to my attention, median scores that far surpass our norms. In one such case, a population of 5000 eleven-year-old children were given a battery of American achievement tests; this population included every eleven-year-old child in a certain county, including mental defectives. The median educational age of this group was a full year in advance of the American norm, while the median score of the retarded children practically met our standard.

I asked at the outset whether American education, in view of its commitment to the ideal of universal secondary education, could still reflect certain standards which would seem on first glance to be important in the life of the nation but which

have been rejected in education because they have seemed to stand in the way of this upward expansion of mass-education. I am not myself convinced that this rejection *in toto* has been justified even by the recognized worthiness of our ideal.

I suggested at the outset that the character and needs of our schools in the near future might possibly be determined by the conditions that will prevail when the country emerges from this slough of despond. I referred in passing to two possibilities. I should like to speak of these again and then of a third possibility.

In the first place, as I suggested, we may go back to a simpler social and economic order, following on a nation-wide scale the pattern that has been set by numerous communities of industrially unemployed persons who have gone back to handicraft production and are supporting themselves on a barter system of exchange. In effect these groups have deserted the machines and are readjusting themselves to a pre-machine-age system. Quite obviously if the population as a whole returns to this simpler form of social life, education will undergo some very marked changes. Fewer children will go to high school and college because their labor will be needed to contribute to the support of the family much earlier than has been the case in the past thirty or forty years. The work of the earlier school years will have to be intensified. The high schools will again become selective institutions attended only by those who can meet the exacting standards.

A second possibility is quite the opposite. The machine, instead of being abandoned, may take over an even larger proportion of the routine or repetitive work needed to support society. The hours of human labor will be reduced to the point where everyone will be able to find employment, and the machine, working under a planned economy, will produce food and other commodities in sufficient amount to enable everyone to live in comfort. This is essentially a machine-slave civilization, and seems to be entirely feasible except for the small matter of arranging a few troublesome details. Assuming such a social and economic order to be in the offing, it is clear that the educational problem that it would involve would be far more

serious and complicated than those that would confront us in the event that we moved back to a simpler economic order. The problem of preparing for leisure would assume huge proportions, for relative abundance coupled with an abundance of leisure would mean a moral hazard of unprecedented dimensions. It is not easy to draw valid generalizations from history, but if there is one generalization that seems entirely trustworthy it is that civilizations based upon slavery have within them the seeds of their own degeneration, and there is no generalization more strongly supported by both history and biology than that struggle and effort and some measure of competition are essential to progress. The ideal of personal economic responsibility has been a very powerful force in the development of society, and an economic order in which the force of this ideal will inevitably be greatly reduced will involve an educational problem far more difficult to solve, I think, than anything that has confronted us in the past. It is in effect providing a substitute for a force that seems hitherto to have been indispensable to human progress.

A third possibility seems rather more likely to eventuate than either of the other two. This is an adjustment that will have some of the features of the second in that machine-production will be extended and will relieve mankind of still more of the heavy work and the routine work. Basic industries will be subjected to some sort of planned control, and the hours of routine labor will be somewhat reduced. The major feature of this economic order, however, will be continuance of a movement that was developing a good bit of momentum between 1920 and 1930, but which has now been interrupted temporarily. I refer to the increase in opportunities to earn a living on what may be called the "stepped-up" levels of human effort which paralleled the decreased opportunities to earn a living on the routine levels. Thus the professional and semi-professional callings were increased in number during the decade and the proportion of the population engaged in work that cannot be done by the machine increased very markedly. Once the present industrial tetanus is broken, there can be little doubt that this movement will be resumed,—that is, opportunities for gainful employment will increase on the stepped-up levels in a

proportion which, accompanied by reasonable reductions in the hours of routine labor, will solve the problem of unemployment and at the same time provide an opportunity for the operation, in some measure at least, of those forces and factors that have heretofore made progress possible, for while this adjustment would doubtless involve a modification of the competitive system and especially a lessened emphasis upon material profits, it would still offer a stimulus to increased effort based in part upon competition for the kinds of distinctions and rewards that, even in the past, have been most highly valued by most workers in professional callings, and here, too, the ideal of personal economic responsibility would also still exert a stabilizing influence.

Under the conditions that would be brought about by this solution of the problem, an important task of education would be to fit as large a proportion of each generation as possible to do the types of work that cannot be done by the machine. This does not mean that all of the human types that have hitherto done routine work can be advanced by education to the plane where they can do work that requires thought and judgment; but a certain proportion probably can be; at any rate organized education would have no alternative but to make the effort. Under these conditions, the growth of the high schools would continue until the goal of universal secondary education had been measurably attained, but an outstanding problem would be to stimulate every learner to that maximum of effort which is within his reach, in place of our present tendency to standardize our educational product on the basis of mediocrity. At any rate something of this sort must be accomplished if the school is to meet the needs as I have predicted them in terms of this third possible development.

I may be prejudiced in my judgment, but I believe that this third development is not only the one that is most likely to come about but that it is also the development that will be most significant for human welfare and social progress. It seems hardly possible that our machine-slaves, which promise so much, will be given up. It seems clear enough that a solution which would merely increase leisure and provide plenty, even

if such a solution could be brought about, would be about the worst thing that could happen to the human race. But if, by taking care of the bulk of the heavy work and the routine work, the machine will permit man to advance to new levels of effort and achievement, we can look forward to a new era that will really be worth living for.

It would be most unfortunate at this time and with this prospect before us to take any steps that would preclude the free access to the high schools of boys and girls from all social and economic strata—for if I am right and even partly right, secondary education is to be in the future even more than in the past the door to opportunity. Nay, further than this, if the situation that I have described eventuates as it well may within a relatively short time to shut the doors of the high schools to millions of pupils, as would be the case if tuition fees were charged as is proposed in many places, would leave us with a large group of young people who could not find work on the routine level and who would be unqualified for the opportunities on the stepped-up levels. But it would be most unfortunate if, in view of the function that the high schools must discharge, we did not take every possible step to insure upon their part the highest measure of efficiency. He cannot do without modifying fundamentally the theories that have governed the development of American education during the past thirty years.

*The Relationship of Regional Accrediting Agencies to Secondary Education During this Crisis* was presented by J. B. Edmonson, Dean of the School of Education, University of Michigan.



## THE RELATIONSHIP OF REGIONAL ACCREDITING AGENCIES TO SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THIS CRISIS

J. B. EDMONSON,  
Dean School of Education,  
University of Michigan

It is not surprising to find that the crisis in education has raised the question as to what contribution the regional accrediting agencies should make to the secondary-schools during such a period. Being a strong believer in the value of the work of these voluntary associations of secondary-schools and colleges, I am very glad to have an opportunity to comment on some problems they should attack as a part of their contribution.

May I remind you that there are five of these regional associations. In the order of their founding they are: the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools, the Association of the Middle States and Maryland, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools, the Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools of the Southern States, and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

For the past few years I have had an unusual opportunity to become acquainted with the work of these regional agencies, and I have a great deal of confidence in them. It would be impossible to estimate the impetus they have given to high-schools. By setting up high standards for accrediting, by holding up ideals of educational achievement to local communities, and by encouraging and aiding significant studies of educational problems, these agencies have greatly improved the secondary-schools. They have also aided in the development of more reasonable college entrance requirements and have rendered important service in improving educational conditions through standardization of procedure and through wide dissemination of knowledge concerning practices in our better schools.



It is unnecessary to advocate before this Department of Secondary-School Principals that such organizations should play a large part in any consideration of American education during the present crisis. It is obvious that they have the organization, the personnel, the prestige, and the power to play an important part in the present period of educational readjustment. The question is not, *Shall* they take part? but, *How* shall they take part? During the present crisis I should like to see these regional agencies attacking problems that are of interest to large numbers of secondary-schools. The present evidences of a hostile public should be sufficiently alarming to warrant the scrapping of those policies and programs that are no longer of much significance, and the formulation of new programs that will insure that educational problems will be solved through the cooperation of leaders in education.

These are the days when everyone is concerned with proposals to restore financial and business stability. Concern is almost as keen in proposals to prevent the economic system from getting out of order in the future as in proposals to cure the present disorder. With business appraising its past and trying to read the future, it is not surprising that educators should be demanded to do likewise. It is quite certain that the growing need for better planning in the world of business will increase the demand for better planning in the field of education, especially at the secondary and college levels.

The present is an especially appropriate time for initiating a constructive program affecting our secondary-schools. The great changes in life which have been brought about by the ups and downs in the economic world have tended to increase demands for changes in education. At the same time a large amount of factual information concerning our secondary-schools is available in the reports of the National Survey of Secondary Education, which will be published within the next few months. These reports should be of great help in appraising our present program and in making plans for the future.

The regional associations will play an important part in the readjustment, but the precise nature of that part is still

to be determined. The rest of this paper presents a series of recommendations concerning problems and policies that must receive their attention if they are to make significant contributions to the secondary-schools during the present crisis.

My first recommendation is that the regional associations attempt to develop a better agreement as to the real philosophy of American secondary education and then make a determined effort to have this philosophy understood by teachers and laymen. Unless we can reach a better agreement on the scope and objectives of secondary education, we shall find it extremely difficult to evaluate present programs and to make plans for the future. It is doubtless unnecessary to remind this group that there is plenty of evidence of marked disagreement both among teachers and among laymen regarding the philosophy that should find expression in our secondary-schools. The conversations and public utterances, as well as the acts, of many persons show a sincere belief in the older philosophy of secondary education. This older philosophy assumes that secondary education is a privilege to which only those of proved capacity are entitled. This philosophy calls for a system of secondary education for the intellectually and socially elite. It is the older European point of view. It implies that the secondary-school must be progressively selective by eliminating all students who cannot maintain a high standard of performance.

In contrast with this older philosophy there is the newer point of view that has found expression in many new activities and programs in our secondary-schools, some of which are resented by the advocates of the older theory. The newer philosophy demands that secondary education be open to all the children of adolescent age. It implies that the secondary-school must provide types of education as varied as may be demanded by the varied interests of secondary-school pupils. The older philosophy and the newer philosophy are incompatible. As long as there is such marked disagreement regarding the valid objectives of American secondary education, our teachers will find it difficult to attack problems involving the curriculum, instructional procedures, and related matters. It will also be

impossible to meet certain current criticisms until we have more substantial agreement concerning the underlying philosophy of our program of secondary-school training. It is gratifying to find that the Carnegie Foundation has made a grant of money to the Department of Secondary-School Principals for an intensive study of the objectives of American secondary education. Such a study will be of great value as a basis for long time planning. In the meantime there is an immediate need for some authoritative pronouncements regarding the valid objectives of secondary-school education, and our regional associations should meet the demand for help and guidance.

My second recommendation is that the regional agencies become more aggressive in attacking the problem of effective articulation between the colleges and the secondary-schools. Too long the secondary-schools and the colleges have been friendly enemies. The time has come when there are so many common enemies of both secondary and higher education that we must eliminate any unnecessary feuds within the profession. Possibly we need to cease talking about cooperation between colleges and secondary-schools and devote our attention to a discussion of a vigorous defense of education by united forces. Our secondary-schools cannot hold the confidence of the public unless more adequate provision is made for the training of large groups of young people who cannot with profit attend the higher institutions as they are now organized. Some provision must be made for this group. It is the belief of some high-school principals that the definition of entrance requirements in terms of certain patterns of work constitutes a real obstacle to any program of reorganization of the curriculum. On the other hand, scores of studies indicate that the colleges do not need to hold to their traditional practice in the matter of entrance requirements in terms of certain units. There has been enough experimentation in this field to indicate the existence of better procedures for the selection of students for college.

It is my personal opinion that under present plans of college admission as found in the North Central territory the secondary-schools have a very great degree of freedom to work

out their own instructional problems—greater, I sometimes feel, than many of the secondary-school principals desire to exercise. It is my candid opinion, moreover, that the colleges are carrying an unnecessary burden of criticism by continuing to use an obsolete method of selecting students for entrance. There is plenty of evidence to show that colleges should select students by other methods that are more effective than that of admission in terms of certain patterns of units. I refer to the use of general scholarship tests, measures of ability, and records made in high-schools in a variety of fields of work. The use of these results would free the colleges from many of the criticisms now voiced by the secondary-schools. Furthermore, the colleges have so many problems to face, in matters of public relations and financial support, that they can ill afford to carry the charge of attempting to dominate the program of the secondary-schools. This charge has been overworked, but among the general public the colleges are not making friends by allowing the indictment to go unchallenged. The best interests of the secondary-schools and colleges would be served by the development of policies of articulation that would free both units from the criticisms that irritate the public and cause a decrease of faith in both units. The regional accrediting agencies should attack this problem without delay.

My third recommendation to the regional agencies is that the problem of the curriculum of the secondary-school should be re-attacked in the light of the social and economic developments of the last few years. The teaching profession has dabbled in curriculum revision, but it is my guess that much of the instruction in many schools is comparable to that of a quarter of a century ago. In other words, the vast social and economic changes in American life have not brought about comparable changes in our programs of instruction except in relatively few centers. In the present period of social unrest an increasing number of persons have grave doubts regarding the value of the present curriculum of our secondary-schools. We have had many national committees at work on curriculum problems and we have had numerous reports from groups of experts, but it would appear that these reports have not greatly influenced the instructional programs of our schools.

The fact that laymen are talking so much about the fads and frills in our secondary-schools furnishes some evidence that we have not succeeded in building a well integrated program of instruction. There should be no fads and frills in our schools, and it is my judgment that much of the talk about fads and frills is either sheer nonsense or an expression of traditional prejudices. It must be granted, however, that a well integrated curriculum would not be likely to be so much misunderstood by critics of our schools. It is my prediction that the next few years will bring rapid progress in the reconstruction of the curriculum. It may be that one of the good results of the present financial strain will be a re-evaluation of the program of instruction. The regional accrediting agencies should give immediate attention to the new curriculum problems created by recent trends.

My fourth recommendation is that the regional associations should be lenient in the application of standards for accrediting in those cases where the school authorities and the communities are making an honest and determined effort to meet the requirements. There are scores of cases where schools deserve a marked degree of leniency. In all probability there are some cases where alibis and flimsy excuses are offered for failure to meet reasonable requirements; even in periods of prosperity such evasions and excuses were offered by some school authorities and some communities. But the regional associations can render a real service by protecting the educational interests of pupils and demanding the real facts in any case where there is an appeal for lenience. This is the time to go behind paper reports and to treat each application in terms of the real facts.

It has been proposed that the regional agencies should suspend their standards during this period. I have no sympathy with any such proposal unless it is agreed that the standards have possessed no degree of validity during the past decade. If the regional associations were to declare a moratorium, the secondary-schools in many communities would be at the mercy of persons who have no interest in providing an adequate program of secondary-school instruction. In such a period as this

the standardizing agencies can be of great help to secondary-schools by being lenient in deserving cases and by being severe in treating bogus claims. If, however, the accrediting agencies are to be discriminating in the matter of leniency, these agencies must have the active cooperation of secondary-school principals. Too few principals attend the meetings of the regional associations, and therefore too few principals exercise any influence in shaping the policies and programs of the associations. It is my opinion that for a high-school principal there is no more important professional meeting than the meeting of the regional association to which his high-school belongs. During the present crisis high-school principals should take a renewed interest in the work of the accrediting agencies and should help to develop a constructive and sympathetic attitude on the part of these agencies towards the problems of individual schools.

My fifth recommendation is that the regional associations should encourage a greater amount of experimentation in our secondary-schools. In spite of the fact that the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools has in its constitution a provision whereby schools may be granted the right to try an educational experiment, there appears to be the feeling that all regional associations are opposed to any departure from well established practices. As a matter of fact our high-schools are going to find it difficult to make needed readjustments unless a greater amount of experimentation is carried on. In this period when we must practice economies, more of our schools should try the experiment of teaching pupils in large classes. We have some evidence that large classes yield results that are as good as those secured from small classes. On the other hand, the common opinion of teachers is that the interests of pupils are certain to be sacrificed when classes are increased beyond a certain point. We need more study of the question as to the most efficient size of class as well as the problem of the instructional procedures that are best adapted to larger classes. We also need much experimentation with curriculum materials, especially with materials prepared for pupils of relatively low ability. We need more experimentation with the activities program which in some schools has become



quite completely divorced from the regular instructional program of the schools. We also need more experimentation to discover the possibilities of organizing our schools in such a way as to avoid the numerous criticisms of formalism that have recently been made against the typical secondary-school. Numerous other problems could be mentioned that cannot be solved satisfactorily until more schools experiment with possible solutions. Our regional associations need to encourage such experimentation, and it is my belief that they will be quite willing to do so wherever secondary-school principals exhibit a desire to try some practice that is a real departure from the traditional.

I am convinced that we are going to improve American education during the next few years. We are going to do it in part because of the stimulation that comes from criticism and opposition. It is my prediction that more thought is going to be given to planning for American education in the next few years than has ever been given to any similar problem in the past few decades. We must be alert and ready to make such changes in education as a changing economic order may demand.

In conclusion I want to emphasize the responsibility resting upon the regional associations for developing plans to meet new problems that will arise in the field of secondary education. As I stated in an earlier paragraph, the idea of planning is receiving much consideration in the field of business and there is a growing demand that educational bodies give more attention to the appraisal of the past and planning of the future. Such a responsibility clearly rests on all organizations as well organized and as effective as these regional associations. If our associations are to furnish this leadership they must have the sympathetic and loyal support of the secondary-school principals, especially those who have faith in the possibility of building a greater secondary-school out of the depressing and threatening conditions of the present period. I hope, therefore, that the coming years will find the regional associations even stronger than at present and far more active than they have been during the past decade in their role as pace-makers for our secondary-schools.



Deputy Superintendent Wm. H. Bristow of the State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, then read his paper on *The Relationship of State Departments of Education to Secondary Education During this Crisis*.

## THE RELATIONSHIP OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION TO SECONDARY EDU- CATION DURING THIS CRISIS

WILLIAM H. BRISTOW,  
Deputy Superintendent,  
State Department of Public Instruction,  
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

State departments of education are having their full share of the difficulties brought on by the unrest and loss of revenue due to the depression. In discussing the subject assigned to me I should like to consider three questions. These are as follows:

- I. What is the relation of education to the program of the state, and how far is the state obligated to support and encourage programs of education.
- II. What position should the state take in connection with the objectives of secondary education, and the teaching program which is set up to meet these objectives.
- III. What is the relationship of the state to the problem of standards, including school organization and the efficiency of teaching.

### **I. Education has been generally accepted as a function of government.**

It is interesting to note that this acceptance has come not at the insistence of educators, but that statesmen have considered a program of education fundamental to the maintenance of the safety of the state. In America this education has come to be thought of as necessary to the maintenance of our democracy. Other countries have maintained educational pro-

grams with a view to perpetuating the institutions and ideals of these countries. On the other hand, educators have proposed and developed educational programs providing educational opportunity for all types of citizens. The general principle behind these programs has been set up somewhat as follows:

Education enables the individual to function effectively in the interests of individual and social well being.

Adequate educational programs represent the most valuable aspects of the social heritage so organized as to provide the experiences necessary for the individual's maximum growth.

Every individual is entitled to educational opportunity commensurate with his ability and interests as long as the law of diminishing returns for society does not operate.

The expenditures of public funds for education in a democracy is an investment in social insurance, justified by returns both to the state and the individual in terms of better citizenship and the improvement of human welfare and happiness.

That all have not accepted these principles is shown by the difficulties now faced in developing state and local budgets for education, the action of tax payers associations, and the question raised by many interests as to whether or not the state is obliged to provide education or any other type of service to its constituents. Various phases of the educational program are being attacked by different groups throughout the country. In every state in the union proposals are made which tend to limit what is now considered to be an effective program of education. Education is placed in the position of competing with other services and the attacks made do not even consider the facts of the case or the problems involved. Witness the attacks made by Mr. Mencken and the editor of the *Saturday Evening Post*.

In so far as the state is concerned the following implications seem significant for secondary education:

- A.
  - 1. Because of the current economic situation and technological developments, fewer workers are being required in industry.
  - 2. This has resulted in throwing large number of young people out of employment and leaving them with no other worthwhile activities with which to occupy themselves.
  - 3. What social agency is to deal with this problem? Are educational opportunities to be provided for these boys and girls? If so, these opportunities must be worthwhile and interesting.
- B.
  - 1. Because of the increasing complexity of modern life it is necessary for the individual to see events in perspective and in their relationship to other things.
  - 2. The intensity of specialization in present day life and the departmentalization of knowledge have made this almost impossible.
  - 3. To meet this situation a reorganization of the school curriculum is necessary to make possible an integrated presentation of subject matter.
- C.
  - 1. Democratic governmental and social institutions have found it increasingly difficult to cope with the intricate problems facing our civilization.
  - 2. One of the reasons for this is that the individual citizen has not shown the requisite capacity for participation in a self-governing community.
  - 3. The school must, therefore, stress a new type of citizenship training, emphasizing the need for dealing with life realistically and at the same time inculcating a high idealism, taking into account the influence which adult actions have on boys and girls in school, and making provision for pupil participation in citizenship activities.

- D. 1. Modern civilization surrounds the individual with a complicated maze of interesting and often conflicting influences.
2. The average person has not been prepared for life in this kind of a world and finds himself at the mercy of forces, the existence of many of which he does not even suspect, and is thus in the position of a helpless ship on an unchartered sea, exploited by his environment.
3. The school must prepare the individual for a rational and complete life in this kind of a world, and must provide for individual guidance at the secondary-school level.

If it is granted that secondary education is a legitimate function of the state then we are confronted with the problem of state support. Few states in the Union have developed anything like an adequate basis of support either for elementary or secondary education. For the most part the elementary school program is supported more effectively than the secondary program. If we are to have a reasonably adequate program of secondary education developed on an economical basis which will take into consideration the need of boys and girls then a larger unit of school administration must be adopted for most states. It is true that in certain metropolitan areas and in such states as California the larger high-school unit prevails, but by and large the small high school still furnishes secondary-school opportunities for most boys and girls. Proposals have already been made and accepted in a number of states for such a larger unit. The proposals under way in Missouri at the present time indicate a trend in this direction. There are two points involved. First, it is impossible to have an adequate secondary-school program unless there can be brought together a sufficiently large group to make some type of differentiation possible; and second, in a small area except under very favorable circumstances it is quite out of the question to provide for the adequate support of a secondary-school program. This latter point leads us to conclude that it is only when a program of equalization can be applied to a relatively large area and to the

state itself, that the most effective and efficient type of organization will be made possible.

**II. The United States is one of the few countries in the world to-day where the educational program does not seem to be headed in some particular direction.**

We have adopted certain words which have been accepted as objectives. Citizenship, worthy home membership, and character are types. They have unquestionably done service in helping people to think through their problems. They have not, however, taken firm root either in the educational program or in the program of society.

There is much to be said of those responsible for the schools. In the schools we are given the job of attempting to build ideals which seem to be, and in many cases are, at variance with the ideals of the society of which we are a part. This unfortunately is the condition which exists in a great many countries, but probably more so in the United States than elsewhere.

We also need a re-evaluation of our objectives in terms of the personality traits which ought to prevail in our American citizen. In this we are confronted with many problems. Tradition places a heavy hand upon the school and upon the teacher. As long as education consists of abstractions with reference to crime and vice and distrust on the part of public officials, it is not questioned. As soon as it refers to the crime and vice in the community, to graft and mis-management of public affairs, the teacher "is placed on the spot" and is advised at the end of the term, if not sooner, that her contract will be terminated.

The condition, however, is not hopeless. There are many who realize that the safety of democracy lies in a frank discussion of problems for which at present there are now no answers. These groups realize that thinking is the most important product of public education, and that you cannot make a thinking individual without giving him practice in thinking with materials which are of real vital interest.

Some have suggested indoctrination as the only way out, and that without it that our present program is doomed to fail. Personally, I am not convinced that cooperation as a means of arriving at the solution of social problems is a failure. I do believe, however, that in the schools we must give much thought to the organization of education to develop cooperative thinking.

As an example of one of the things which the school might do, we should call attention to the fact that little effort has been made in the schools to build up a concept of the place of the school in the scheme of society or the implications involved in its maintenance and support. Millions of boys and girls going through the elementary and public schools develop little or no appreciation of why society has schools or what the schools are attempting to do. Would it not be helpful if boys and girls might study, certainly at the secondary-school level, the functions and purposes of the school. Teachers, parents and pupils would probably do well to study more carefully the functions and purposes of individual courses and curriculums in the school and its activities.

European countries have made much of what has been called the Youth Movement. We have a youth movement in this country but we have not as yet recognized its importance or placed any confidence in it. The youth movement in America is in the public secondary school. These boys and girls are already mobilizing for cooperative thought and cooperative planning. They are, however not unified, and the programs and policies which have been developed both within the school and without have tended to make for competition rather than for cooperation. Their only contact one with the other is frequently at the annual football game. We might use some of the effort which is expended in our competitive exercises to develop cooperative programs. In so far as the state is concerned it seems to me that a perpetuation of democratic ideals involve the following:

1. The development of the organization of instructional program which will make for flexibility on the part of individuals. The rapidity of change in our society re-

quires that individuals be "conditioned" to expect and meet changes. One of the greatest difficulties in finding a solution to our present problems is the great amount of inertia which must be overcome. People do not want to give up old ways of doing things.

2. Development of attitudes with reference to sharing and cooperation. If present indications mean anything there must come a greater amount of sharing if our social order is to continue to function.
3. The social outlook demands that the schools devise educational programs which will make use of the differences possessed by boys and girls to the end that they may use these differences both from the vocational standpoint and from the standpoint of getting on well with one another.

### **III. Relation of state departments of public instruction to standards.**

In reviewing the question of standards there seems to be one clear and unmistakable point. Standards, as we have developed them, both by state and regional associations, need an overhauling. Some of the criticism which has arisen due to the development of standards is unwarranted. Standards have been helpful in developing our national program of secondary education. There is still a place for standards, but the emphasis must be different from what it has been in the past. There are those who believe that "institutional" accreditation should be abandoned for "individual" accreditation. The suggestion is fine, but unless those who are to evaluate the records of individual pupils have some assurance relative to the integrity and worth of the educational program which has been followed by the pupil, no matter how pretty may be his individual record, it will be very difficult to make such evaluation. Under present conditions reasonable standards may have the following effect:

1. They may prevent the entire elimination of functions. In many communities, because of financial difficulties,



there is a tendency to eliminate functions, rather than to adjust all along the line. This attack usually starts with phases of the program which are now considered highly important and desirable by those in the field of education, but not so by other groups. Such items are vocational education, music and art education, health and physical education, and such services as libraries, nursing, counseling and supervision. There are influences to-day which would eliminate or minimize programs of activities and pupil participation in the secondary school. "Return to the essentials" is the cry. As a matter of fact, we do need to pay attention to essentials, but essentials to-day are not what they were yesterday. The departments of education should be in position to aid local communities in interpreting these activities in terms of their real contribution to education.

2. The state departments of education can serve as a steadying influence in the reorganization of administrative policy with reference to size of class, teacher load, and like problems. It can also serve as a clearing house for studies which are being made concerning the necessity of revising our plans with reference to these points. The evidence which we have concerning the problem of size of class indicates that it is possible to carry on as efficient instruction with large classes as with small ones. These studies sometimes neglect the fact that the large class experiments have been carried on for the most part under careful supervision and there have been compensations for the fact that the teacher must handle a larger group.

To the departments of education, local communities are looking for programs of constructive economy. They look to departments of public instruction to suggest the ways in which readjustments can be made with the least harm to the educational program. In arriving at readjustments the following must be considered. First, we must seek to determine the direction in which education should be tending in a state so as to carry out a sound program of education and preserve the es-

sential elements. Second, care must be exercised in organizing schools efficiently and in developing materials of instruction which make it possible to realize the objectives which has been determined upon. Third, State departments of education must help to protect the interests of boys and girls through maintaining a stabilized and equalized program of education.

The discussion group plan was followed in the afternoon session of Tuesday. Group No. 1 assembled in the Tenth Street lobby.

#### GROUP No. 1

State Supervisor of Secondary Education H. C. Lyseth, Augusta, Maine, presided. J. H. Newlon, Director of Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, read his paper, *Improvement and Economy in the Curriculum*.

### IMPROVEMENT AND ECONOMY IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

JESSE H. NEWLON,

Director, Lincoln School Teachers College  
Columbia University

The subject assigned to me implies that the high-school curriculum needs to be improved and that we need to practice economy in secondary education. No thoughtful person would quarrel with these generalizations. On every hand we hear the criticism that the secondary-school curriculum is ill adapted to our times. All of us are for economy and against waste, which recalls Mr. Coolidge's reply when Mrs. Coolidge asked what the preacher had said in his sermon about sin. "Oh, he was against it," answered the President. So are we all against waste and for economy. The financial distress brought by the depression has raised a cry for immediate economy, which I shall first discuss briefly.

Economy is to-day a magic word. Budget-making-bodies, from the National Government down, are falling over them-

selves to make money. By this process hundreds of thousands of workers are thrown out of employment, with consequent increased depression and suffering. The whole business seems crazy, and it is crazy.

The depression and its attendant hysteria are forcing decreased expenditures, but let us not deceive ourselves into believing that these cuts are in any justifiable sense economies. The size of the cut depends not on a considered public policy affecting all schools, but upon geography and the fickle goddess of luck. A few school districts favored by concentrated wealth have actually continued salary increases, while many districts have been compelled to shorten the school term drastically. The depression is exposing to the public gaze the glaring weaknesses of an antiquated method of taxation and school finance, and the absurdity of the continuance of thousands of small school districts. Our professional duty is plain. Our influence, powerful if we act vigorously in the public interest, must be exerted for immediate reform. Even where it is not actually a necessity, school systems are forced to cut budgets by the high-pressure propaganda of the well financed Economy League and of interests never friendly to the free public high-school

There can be no wise and sound rule for doing a thing that should not be done. School budgets were never inflated. Certain principles should be applied in so far as possible. The educational program should be retained intact. Capital expenditures can be postponed; staffs can be reduced by not filling vacancies. Salaries should be decreased as little as possible. Only in recent years have salaries been at all adequate, and it will be difficult to restore them. Teachers should give evidence of their willingness to share the public burdens, but we should also show that we have some intelligence and realistic appreciation of the facts of the situation. Each school administration must do the best it can under the circumstances, warning the people that the schools are being seriously injured.

"Economy" has long been a word to conjure with in education. Great committees have studied economy of time. It

is essential that the educative process should be carried on in the most effective manner with the least possible dawdling and waste. Some have contended that the period of secondary education should be shortened. Is such a proposal wise or possible? This question cannot be answered merely in terms of experimentation within the existing school organization, for that leaves out of consideration powerful social and economic factors. It can be answered adequately only in terms of national aspirations and resources.

The growth of the American high-school is one of the most amazing phenomena in the whole history of education. In 1890 there were in round numbers 4,000 high-schools with an enrollment of 300,000 students and 16,000 teachers. In 1930 there were 27,000 high-schools, almost 6,000,000 students and 235,000 teachers. In 1890 approximately 4.5 per cent of the children of secondary-school age were enrolled in high-schools. To-day more than half are enrolled. High-school enrollment has continued to grow by leaps and bounds during the depression, increasing by 20,000 in New York City in 1931-32, and by 10,000 in Chicago in the same year. In California alone, 25,000 students are enrolled in public junior colleges, not counting first and second-year students in the colleges and universities. Three years ago Einar Jacobsen found in the country as a whole 29,000 post-graduate students exclusive of those in junior colleges, and the number is increasing very rapidly during the depression. (To impose a tuition on these students, as has been proposed in some communities, is entirely out of line with our American tradition.) No other country in the world approaches the United States in the proportion of its youth attending secondary-school. What is the explanation of these facts and what do they signify? What bearing do they have upon the problems of economy and improvement of the curriculum?

Two factors more than any others explain the large high-school enrollment in this country. First, the American people have had great faith in education. Our educational system is in large measure the product of our own experiences and

political ideals. Those who first settled on our shores established schools. The frontier, a mighty leveler, broke the grip of an ancient social caste system and fostered respect for individual worth and the ideal of equal opportunity for all. The Fathers saw that education was essential to the national welfare. In the Jacksonian period the American Revolution flowered, the common man came into full political rights, and the foundations of our state systems of public education were laid. Americans believed in education, and regarded free schools as the best guarantee of equality of opportunity. They saw that a widespread diffusion of knowledge was essential to the success of the great experiment in democracy. This faith explains in part the American high-school, but only in part.

Americans have not only believed in education, they have been able to afford education. We have been engaged in the conquest of a marvelously rich continent, in creating a vast industrial plant, in building large cities, in constructing railroads, highways, and telegraph systems, in exploiting mine and forest. An abundance of work at wages steadily increasing produced the highest standard of living ever known. The fact that there has always been an inequitable distribution of wealth does not in any way invalidate these statements. Comparatively speaking, the American people have occupied the most favorable economic position ever known to any people in the world. This fact explains in large measure our large high-school enrollment.

All this has been true in the past, but what of present and future conditions? Have we come to the end of our prosperity? Must we now set up a rigid selective process and limit educational opportunities? If we may judge by the increase in high-school enrollment in the years of depression, the answer would seem to be emphatically, "NO." But perhaps forces are at work that will change conditions. On every hand we hear the demand for the six-hour day and the five-day week. Americans have been accustomed to long hours of hard labor. What has brought forth this strange cry for

the shortening of hours and the sharing of work? An amazing technology and modern labor-saving machinery. Employment was actually decreasing in many major industries before the depression came. Since new industries and new vocations were not coming into being rapidly enough to give employment to these workers, the number of unemployed was gradually increasing. The term "technological unemployment" describes a phenomenon that was one of the causes of the great depression. Competent students of these problems advise us that we cannot expect the basic industries again to provide employment for so large a proportion of workers as they once did. Just now we are in the paradoxical position of being poor because we can easily produce great wealth. Obviously the situation demands the application of intelligence. In any event it means that the period of youth will be lengthened and that universal education must be provided up to eighteen or twenty, or possibly twenty-two years of age, and that such work as youth may do will be increasingly for educational and less for productive purposes.

There is one angle of the problem, however, that must be explored further. Given our modern technology, have we still the natural resources requisite to such an educational program? No other country has such vast natural resources in proportion to its present and probable future population. We are told that the population will be stabilized at, say, a hundred and seventy million or less in the next fifty years. We have the resources to produce an abundance of goods for every American, and we have the technology. The census statistics are inexorable. In the face of facts it is futile, even absurd, to talk about shortening the period of education, to talk about putting secondary education on a tuition basis or limiting in any way its opportunities. Many Americans are in a blue funk to-day, but such an attitude is ridiculous in the face of existing facts. So far as resources are concerned, there is no reason for surrendering our hope of making the American dream of abundance for all come true. Our resources and technology will not only support universal education through high school but will compel it.



Where, then, is the waste in the high school? The high school is subjected to much criticism. Is the high school deficient in that it does not employ good methods of teaching? Is it inefficient in that the students do not learn well the subject-matter set out to be learned? The efficiency of the learning of conventional subject matter has been greatly improved in recent years. The study of education has been largely directed to that end. Is the high school providing for American youth to-day the education that contemporary American life demands? That is a different question. The problems which confront the world to-day are primarily social in character. We are endeavoring to manage modern technology with a set of economic and political ideas inherited from the past, which obviously do not fit well into the present situation. A government designed for a relatively simple agrarian civilization is creaking under a complex urban civilization, unable to cope effectively with crime, to support agriculture and industry effectively in the worst depression in our history. In the fifteenth year after the World War, Europe and America are spending more on armaments than in the year immediately preceding the war! The nationalistic spirit has never been so strong. We have erected tariff walls so high as almost to stop international trade. The great demand of our time is for a social intelligence and leadership capable of finding solutions for these problems, and it is here that we find the challenge to the American high school.

The high school will render its best service if it gives the individual an understanding of the culture in which he lives, of the social, economic, and political problems which flow from the onward rush of the industrial revolution. He must be equipped with the concepts necessary to understand this system and to consider proposals for its improvement. Does the high school provide such education? What is the relation between the subject matter of the high school curriculum and the critical problems of American life? Tens of thousands of farmers in this country have attended high schools. Have these high schools given them any understanding of agricultural economics or of the position of agri-



culture in our present economic and industrial system? What understanding have urban high-schools given students of the problems of the city, what understanding of our economic and industrial systems? It is at this point that we find the waste in the American high-school.

There are those who contend that it is unwise for members of our own profession to criticize our schools in times like these. I believe it is far better that we who are engaged in secondary education, who see the importance of secondary education in American life, should point out its deficiencies than that this criticism should come from the outside. The present situation calls for nothing less than a redirection of our whole secondary-school curriculum. The old classical tradition still dominates more than half of the studies pursued by the individual student. In a majority of the thousands of small high-schools in villages and rural districts, the high-school curriculum, barring one or two vocational subjects, is little different from the classical offering of forty years ago. The smaller the high-school, the more formal and academic its curriculum!

By what process shall we go about the redirection of American secondary education? First of all, a thorough-going analysis of our American culture in all its major aspects is required—a study of the status of aesthetics, of the family and other institutions, of the role of science and technology, of the economic and industrial system, of government, or international relationships, social and moral problems, of education itself. This is a practical measure that can be undertaken by any high-school faculty. From my own recent experience I can assure you that such a study will provide a most exciting and profitable series of faculty meetings. From this analysis and appraisal of the American tradition and of contemporary American civilization we must formulate a program of secondary education that will contribute to the realization of the dream of which Truslow Adams speaks so eloquently in his "Epic of America." For my part, I have not lost faith that America can be made a lovely place for all Americans, as well as for the more favored few.

There is no reason to suppose that America cannot support an adequate program of secondary education. The logic of our resources and technology will inevitably bring universal education in America to age eighteen or twenty. To utilize our resources for the benefit of all requires minds equipped with the social concepts and outlook of to-day and to-morrow. Secondary education must be reconstructed in the light of these principles.

There is just one further word I should like to add. We have not yet come to that Utopian state where all of our knowledge and resources will be utilized wisely for all the people. Can we in the meantime support our schools? My attention was directed recently to an address of Professor George D. Stoddard of the University of Iowa before the Association for Childhood Education in May, 1931. Speaking of the educational situation in Iowa, Professor Stoddard said:

"In 1930 the people of the state spent \$380,000,000 on passenger automobiles, \$140,000,000 on movies and cosmetics, \$60,000,000 on gasoline, \$50,000,000 on tobacco, and \$50,000,000 on elementary and secondary education. Reduction by one-seventh of the amount spent on pleasure cars would have doubled the amount available for schools."

These figures would not hold for to-day, but it is ridiculous to talk about not being able to afford education when a state like Iowa spends as much money on tobacco as it does on elementary and secondary education and almost three times as much on "movies" and cosmetics. The truth of the matter is that America is amply able to support education, even in these hard times.

What I have said offers no solution for the immediate problems which you face. We shall have to get out of the present mess as best we can, praying that the schools may be spared the worst. A very practical thing for us to do is to set about the reconstruction of the high-school in accordance with the ideas of a new civilization. It will require study. That we can begin here and now. If the Department of Secondary-School Principals will think in large terms and courageously, it

will exercise great influence in the period of reconstruction upon which we are entering. But we must go beyond the walls of the school to find the answers to many of our educational problems.

In the absence of Professor Fretwell, Principal P. H. Powers of East Technical High-school of Cleveland, Ohio, read the paper entitled *Improvement and Economy in Extra-curriculum Activities*.

## ECONOMY AND IMPROVEMENT OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN SECONDARY-SCHOOLS

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Economy is not of necessity an enemy of improvement. So far as extra-curriculum activities are concerned, there are some schools that are still operating on a *laisse-faire* policy. If economy of time, of effort, or of money can cause these schools to develop a constructive policy for guiding these activities, necessity again may be the mother of reform.

Many schools are demonstrating the economy of time, of effort, and of educational opportunity that can exist when the principal, teachers, and pupils coöperate in planning the whole life of the school, curriculum and extra-curriculum. There are still, however, too many schools, especially senior high-schools, with a go-as-you-please program that results in the extracurriculum activities existing in a half-hearted way and sprawling all over the daily and weekly program. Many secondary-school workers have long been pointing out ways whereby the school's constructive program can provide for the whole educational activity of the school as a planned structure rather than letting it exist partly planned but mostly neglected.

This constructive program, especially in the extra-curriculum field, must be developed by the school. This plan cannot be bodily transplanted from one school to another. The principal is responsible. Teachers and pupils can help mightily. The traditional *laisse-faire* policy makes for waste: it is utterly uneconomical; it fails to plan for improvement. Economy and improvement demand a planned, constructive, workable policy. If the principal is a leader, he ought to lead.

Our times are vocal with arguments for a planning and a planned society. Many leaders in secondary education in spite of the fact that they do not know the ultimate ends of a changing civilization, have a working hypothesis which includes the extra-curriculum phase of education. Fortunately, under the pressure of these critical times some of the so-called progressives are coming to recognize that while pupils have rights and privileges they also have duties and obligations. Even the most determined individualists are insisting on a constructive plan of coöperative effort.

In the extra-curriculum field, however, many of those who have operated on a *laisse-faire* policy have not done so because of any guiding philosophy. Either because of a belief that all learning lies in the traditional subject-matter fields or because they are mentally and emotionally swamped by the number and variety of pupil interests, they have muddled along enduring as best they could the confusion of unplanned activities. The necessity for planning for the whole school life of the pupil and for the life of the whole school, may jolt this group into thinking out what to do and how to do it.

What the schools do now is not going to solve immediate national problems. These problems will be solved in some measure or the nation wrecked before our seventh grader is old enough to be president. Any specific solution of a world problem that is taught in school probably will be out of date before the pupils are old enough to put it into practice. In any event, if the educator does not know enough or have the technique to solve present problems, he will probably be rather

modest in asserting that he can teach his pupils that which he himself does not know.

In line with or in spite of what has just been said, what are some of the working hypotheses on which the school can operate? It seems,

- that people have to learn how to live together,
- that they can learn how to contribute and to enjoy contributing their best to the common good,
- that they can learn how to lead or to select a leader,
- that they can learn how to be intelligently obedient to authority
- that they can learn how to direct themselves increasingly intelligently either as individuals or as members of a group.

If the educator starts with some such ideas as these, or any others, it is his business to teach them—to teach them not as the eternal truth but as the best we know now. The telling kind of teaching we have long since learned is rather ineffective; we need to plan the learning situation so that the pupil has a favorable chance to practice and to try out the idea he is learning in order to learn it and if possible to improve it. If we want to have a planning and a progressively planned society, the life of the school should furnish a laboratory for the pupil's learning.

With such ideas as those just cited in mind, some proposals looking toward economy and improvement of the school's extra-curriculum activities seem in order. None of these ideas, however, are new; some or all of them are in operation in those schools that are developing a constructive policy for guiding the whole program of the school's activities.

**One**—The guidance function of the home room can be stressed. Life for the pupil outside of school is becoming more complex and difficult. The teacher-pupil load is increasing. The home room teacher with all the aid that can be secured from special counselors, visiting teachers, advisers,

and supervisory officers can aid the pupil to live intelligently day by day. Many teachers are meeting this need. There is no place for perfunctory home room time-killing. It seems reasonable to insist that if there are teachers who cannot or will not meet this demand, they should give way to teachers who can and will meet the need for personal pupil guidance.

**Two**—Through a pupil-teacher council, or some such means, pupils can have a favorable opportunity to share in planning the society in which they live and in learning how to be intelligently obedient to the authority which they have helped create. Sharing in responsibility has a sobering influence and is fundamental in the development of character. By such a plan the principal is relieved of no responsibility. This is a way he uses to help pupils learn how to live as citizens now.

**Three**—The school can develop a point system to stimulate, to guide, and if necessary to limit pupil participation in extra-curriculum activities. Such a system should help the pupil and his adviser working together to plan for him a well-balanced daily, weekly, and semester program. Likewise, it should help the eligibility committee of the pupil-teacher council in guiding the pupil. It may be that the pupil should pass his Latin, for example, to play on a school team. It is conceivable, also, that the reverse may be true.

**Four**—The school assembly can build morale. Ordinary announcements are sent mimeographed to the home room. Scolding is out of place. This assembly can be bright, earnest, joyous. The finest achievements of individuals, of groups, and of the whole school can be known and celebrated. There can be stirring, beautiful music, serious and big. No depression in the assembly!

**Five**—Every pupil can belong to one or more clubs. Through necessity or choice the pupil has some free time. In later years he will probably have more leisure time. The quality of his life will be in some measure determined by how intelligently he uses this leisure. Pupil clubs, especially those

of the hobby kind, may have a real contribution to make to the pupil's present and probable future needs.

**Six, School Publications.**—As the schools are more crowded and the teacher-pupil load heavier, every means available for orientating the pupil should be used. The *handbook* can be used effectively and economically for administrator, teacher, and pupil. To integrate the school, to form intelligent public opinion and to build and sustain morale, the school needs a *newspaper*. Democratic government in a large school seems scarcely possible without the basis for public opinion made possible by the school paper. Whether mimeographed or printed, it should be issued weekly and be a *newspaper*. The school should have, develop, or secure a teacher trained in school newspaper work and grow this publication out of an accredited course in newspaper writing. The school should either eliminate the *annual* or provide the time and the training necessary for its production on an educative basis.

**Seven, Athletics.**—The program of health and physical education should be maintained. Health service is needed more than at any other time in the past two decades. Expensive interscholastic athletics, participated in by the few, can be cut. Intra-mural athletics for all pupils should be further developed. Trained pupil leaders can be used effectively here. In times like these physical play is a necessity not a luxury. There can be no economy or high morale in working with pupils deliberately allowed to become physically unfit.

**Eight, Commencement.**—The graduating exercises should be celebrated with distinction. The program should grow out of the life of the school. It should be joyous, beautiful, inspiring, and educative for those participating, for the whole school and for the community. Teachers and pupils should study and present the problems of the school and of its pupils as citizens in their relation to each other and to the community. Hot house flowers, expensive dresses and much cab-fare are out of keeping with the times. As the writer has said elsewhere, "Whatever the program, there should be an intelligent looking toward the future that, among other things, will prevent the



unfavorable emotional reaction that too often takes place among pupils and parents after commencement day is over. To leap from the joyous light of generous approval into unplanned obscurity is a consummation devoutly to be avoided. Commencement, while capitalizing the present and past, should also look toward the future."\*

**Nine, The School Calendar**—The school should plan its program of afternoon and evening events for the whole year. Such activities as plays, concerts, debates, class parties, and athletic events, should be properly spaced. Youth has less spending money but even greater than ordinary need for wholesome recreation. The expensive "extras" in decorations and general "trimmings" can and should be eliminated, but the school should plan as never before for the social activities of its young people. There should be more, instead of fewer, of these social activities presented by the pupils. Make these activities just as nearly free to the school and the public as possible.

**Ten, Contests**—Some schools are "contested" almost to death. In some sections of the country, fostered by the state or by competing colleges, there are contests in everything curriculum and extra-curriculum—Latin, second year algebra, basketball, brass bands, canning clubs, and piccolo players. There is continuously the motive—go out and lick somebody. Frequently, the poorer the school the greater the emphasis in specializing on the training of a few pupils to win these contests. Somebody ought to make a real study of the influence of the contest on the curriculum. A desire for a reasonable economy and an improvement of the school as a school, not as a contest factory, demands that this contest idea be critically examined. It's a morale "buster."

**Eleven, Allied Agencies**.—There are in many communities such organizations working with Youth as the Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Boys Clubs, Hi-Y's, Girl Reserves, Y. M. C. A.'s, and so on. Economy of time, effort, money, and educational opportunity demands that

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\*Fretwell, Elbert K.: *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, p. 398.

the school develop a constructive policy of coöperating or not coöperating with these agencies. The question is not how can this or that organization be fostered but how can the activity of youth be so coördinated as to be of best service to himself and to the state. According to the *lasse-faire* policy there is too much waste effort and youth suffers needlessly.

**Twelve, Finances**—There are many schools that have organized their extra-curriculum finances on a sound, constructive business basis. The pupil purse has been protected, budgets have been balanced. Through the department of business education the handling of extra-curriculum money has been the basis for educative experience. However, all the studies that have been made thus far show that many, in fact a majority, of the schools are still in the kind of finances under discussion on a go-as-you-please policy, or that the principal has been so ineffective in developing an educationally constructive policy that he, or his secretary, has to handle all finances. It seems that many principals by a *lasse-faire* policy are educating their teachers and pupils to do the very things financially against which these same principals cry out if the very same things are done in public life. How a principal can demand that a community chest or a national congress budget system in the school's extra-curriculum finances is beyond any rational comprehension. There is on this point in too many schools a really criminal waste of educational opportunity.

**Thirteen, Music**—In a curriculum and in an extra-curriculum way music, at least on the appreciative side, is of value to everyone. In school, church, social life, or in any popular national movement, if we need morale, we utilize music. We cannot sing away an unbalanced budget nor can we sing out of existence a discordant banking system. However, when we need that people hold steady, or unite for coöperative action in times of emotional stress, we use music. Even aside from happiness or any doctrine of catharsis, it may be that music is worth more to the individual than all the second year algebra that has been taught or forced on girls since the beginning of recorded time.

Finally, if we must cut, let us cut where the operation will insure the health of the patient. A few minor operations have been indicated. Times like these demand morale. Right or wrong, the school's extra-curriculum activities can be morale builders. Cut out of the individual pupil's program those curriculum and extra-curriculum materials and activities that are dead wood to him now and to his probable future. This dead wood constitutes our chief fads and frills. Organize, get pupils and teachers intelligently busy sharing in the organization of a constructive policy for guiding the school including its extra-curriculum activities.

Through expert guidance and through satisfying practice get our high-school people busy forming the habit of planning the immediate society of which they are a definite part. An honest depression may be good for the soul. Times like these are not actually to be feared. These times demand that we get rid of the dead hand of some outworn traditions, get rid of our nebulous *lasse-faire* policy, and that we plan constructively what the school should do by, with, and for its pupils and for the state.

#### GROUP No. 2

Principal R. B. Clem, of the Shawnee High-School, of Louisville, Kentucky, presided over the group which met in the Third Avenue lobby. Professor H. R. Douglas, of the School of Education of the University of Minnesota, presented his paper, *The Junior High-School Curriculum Adapted to the Needs of Pupils*.

### ADAPTING THE CURRICULUM OF THE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TO THE NEEDS OF THE PUPILS

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As a beginning I should like to state a few truths as a basis upon which I may found my discussion. These state-

ments possess no characteristic of novelty and I make them only to set the stage for subsequent points.

To contribute most to the needs of junior high-school pupils, the curriculum should be such a one as will contribute most to the attainment of the educational objectives of that division of the educational system. It should therefore be formulated so as to provide the most effective contribution to the general aims of education including secondary education, but also to the functions which the junior school should especially serve. Not only, therefore, should the curriculum be aimed at health, vocational effectiveness, worthy home membership, social, civic and moral growth, and desirable leisure tastes and habits but at the following peculiar functions:

1. Safe and economical transition from elementary to secondary education.
2. Exploration of and orientation of the pupil with reference to his capacities and potential interests, the various fields of human endeavor including vocational occupations, and the various fields of knowledge and culture.
3. Guidance of pupils in developing educational and vocational plans, desirable personality and character traits, health habits, social adaptability and cooperation.
4. Economy of time—elimination of relatively ineffective educational materials, methods, teaching personnel, and phases of organization.
5. Adaptation of materials to the abilities, capacities, interests, and probable future needs of the pupils.

With this condensed foundational introduction, I wish to indicate, in the few minutes allotted to me, some of the ways in which much progress is yet to be made, before the junior high-school curriculum may be said to be materially better adapted to the needs of the pupils than the old order it displaced.

In the first place, permit me to remind you that in that period—about 1895 to 1915—when the arguments in favor of

the reorganization of secondary education were being formulated and urged upon us, one of the principal features proposed for the new school was the earlier introduction of secondary education. This suggestion came principally from two sources; college presidents who wished to have students enter college earlier and in larger numbers, and students of foreign educational systems. I regard it as fortunate that this proposal has found only a limited application in actual practice. The earlier introduction of foreign languages, mathematics, and classical and near-classical literature would have indeed been a step later to be undone.

Composite, general, or unified mathematics, as originally planned would have provided not only for the earlier introduction of much algebra, trigonometry, and geometry of little educational value to the great majority of pupils found in grades seven and eight but the inextricable entangling of less useful aspects of these subjects with the more useful arithmetic which ministers to the present and future needs of junior high-school pupils. In fact, it is clear, at least to me, that, in the interest of the pupil as well as of mathematics as a school subject, from 50 to 60% of the material now taught in ninth grade school mathematics should not be taught in the junior high-school at all.

This material, largely algebra, can be justified as being of more value than other subjects which might be taught instead, only for those pupils who will later pursue collegiate studies based upon mathematics. Reason would seem to indicate rather clearly that it be divorced from those phases of algebra which should be of value to all pupils and transferred to the senior high-school, there to be combined with other materials into a rigorous course in college preparatory algebra for a limited small group. To the algebra left in the third year junior high-school curriculum, such as the use and evaluation of formulæ, the fundamentals of negative and literal numbers, graphical representation, and similar material of more common application in the life of people generally should be added two types of materials.

One of these includes those aspects of elementary statistical methods which will enable pupils to read intelligently the increasing number of articles and books on scientific, sociological, and economic topics which employ statistical methods of thinking and presentation, and which will assist them to discover and appreciate the significance of relationships between any two variables. These relationships are in actual life rarely those represented by the algebraic equation which assumes perfect correlation, as represented by a coefficient 1.0, between the two variables, so that when the value of  $x$  is known, the value of  $y$  is determined and may be calculated with no error of estimate at all. The relationships that exist between variables in most situations in life are not so definitely fixed, but are such as is represented by coefficients of correlation of less than 1.00. Things *tend* to go together; certain effects *tend* to go with a certain cause or set of causes; rarely is the relationship exactly proportional. Much more useful in most walks of life than mastery of simultaneous equations, factoring, and special products, or the more intricate types of fundamental operations in algebra, are the concepts and the abilities to think in terms of measures of central tendency, variation, probable errors of estimate, probability, and of relationship. In fact, it would seem that for many types of college curricula, training in the simpler phases of algebra and in the more useful aspects of elementary statistical methods also constitutes a better preparation than continued training in algebra. Furnishing as it does means of comprehending large groups of cases and relationships which otherwise would confuse the normal mind, it would seem that training in statistical methods offers opportunities for insuring clear thinking superior to those of geometry.

The second type of content which should be emphasized in the third year of junior high-school mathematics includes those phases of arithmetic which are mathematically hard to master or which are related to civic, business, or other economic activities of life which can be understood but hazily by boys and girls of 12, 13 or 14 years of age.

The introduction of a foreign language before the ninth grade can hardly be justified except in larger schools where it may be offered as an additional elective for bright pupils. The theory that because they were younger and their speech organs more plastic, pupils in seventh and eighth grades would make greater progress than in the ninth and tenth grades in mastering foreign languages has not been supported by results obtained where it has been taught to younger pupils.

In general, the tendency to crowd down into the junior high-school materials formerly taught in these fields in the senior high-school seems to constitute an undesirable practice founded on loose thinking and fallacy. Instead, what is really needed is a more thorough mastery of the fields already taught in the junior high-school. Textbooks in United States history are written in such style and vocabulary that for a great proportion of pupils, the material in them has little meaning other than the raw material for memory exercises stimulated by the prospects of oral recitation and written examination. The words are learned, the ideas seldom well understood, much less retained. The amount of materials included in courses in history and social science is so great as to demand a great time allotment or a thoroughgoing elimination of topics of lesser value. The needs of junior high-school pupils demand instructional materials in history and social studies which will reveal in terms understandable by boys and girls of from 12 to 16 years of age the character and nature of our institutions, the facts concerning which they strive to acquire for temporary reproduction. The ideals and attitudes upon which good citizenship, political, economic, community, and private morality must be based may not safely be slighted in our effort to have students acquire a superficial or pseudo erudition.

It is gradually becoming obvious that the course of study materials in the non-vocational subjects are pitched for the abler half of the pupils. Much of the instructional materials in literature are too advanced, and the concepts and vocabulary of the subjects too mature. High-school teachers have heretofore been willing apparently to accept ridiculously low



levels of achievement, rather than to modify the curriculum to fit the needs and abilities of pupils. The futility of closing one's eyes to these things has become obvious to some. The beginnings of a revision downward in the interest of more thorough scholarship is under way.

An interesting body of data revealing the inadequate mastery by pupils of the materials taught them has been collected by Briggs.<sup>1</sup> Pupils decipher rather than translate Latin and French. One-half our high-school students toward the end of a year in algebra are unable to find the area of the circle when they are given the formula and the values of " $\pi$ " and  $r$ . Half of our high-school students having had a year of American history are unable to define the Monroe Doctrine and an equal proportion, after completing a year of ancient history, are not able to tell who Solon was. Only seven out of ten seniors in superior high-schools rate Tennyson's *Bugle Song* better than crude parodies based it. The large percentage of errors in pupils' compositions are known to all high-school teachers. It would seem obvious to everyone but school teachers that we are trying to do too much and too difficult things, and that we are failing to do the simpler and more essential things well.

Provision for enjoyable use of leisure is not well made through instructional materials of the highest level class alone. It is not practical to assume that any great proportion of pupils may be educated in the junior high-school to spend any great proportion of the vastly increased amount of leisure now available in consuming or producing the type of literary or artistic product which forms the greater part of the course of study in art, literature, and music. Indeed, until teachers in these fields are able to shake themselves free from standards impractical for children, there is little hope that the instructional materials which they employ will be but hurdles to bar the way of those who are not precocious or hypocritical and to crowd from the curriculum, materials which give

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<sup>1</sup>Briggs, Thomas H. *The Great Investment*, Harvard University Press, 1930, pp. 124-8.

greater promise in the development of good leisure habits. The course of study in literature, for example, must be such as will develop in junior high-school pupils interests and reading habits in materials, which, there is some rational basis for believing, will constitute the means of expenditure of much leisure time with satisfaction to the individual and profit to society.

Some of our early attempts to adapt the curriculum to the vocational needs of junior high-school pupils have not proven wise. The attempts to introduce technical vocational education in printing, stenography, shop work, and other subjects, did not fit in with the fact that pupils dropping out of school before reaching the senior high-school could rarely find employment in these fields, and the fact that satisfactory levels of achievement in these fields were rarely attained in the junior high-school grades. In the light of what we now know about the careers of junior high-school pupils, who drop out of school before completing senior high-school, technical vocational education does not seem adapted to their needs. Instead broad fundamental exploration and informational courses in business and shop activities are serviceable not only to those who do not go on, but to those who supplement such courses with specific vocational education in the senior high-school and college, and the same may be said of intelligent correlation of the content of so-called academic subjects with vocational applications.

Now I wish to devote the time remaining to me, to the consideration of what I believe to be the most important problem of adapting the curriculum to the needs of the individual. Let me begin by laying a few foundational premises. Public education is maintained at public expense not merely for the benefit of the individuals who are educated but for all individuals. It is easily possible to demonstrate that throughout the period in which the battle was waged to establish a system of free public education at public expense, the fundamental consideration as urged by Franklin, Washington, Jefferson, Adams, Madison, Mains, Bernard, and all great friends of

public education was the necessity of an enlightened citizenry and leadership for the welfare of all.

We have drifted into the fallacy of discussing educational problems and planning educational organization and procedures almost completely from the point of view of the direct profit to the individual pupil. It may be that this unfortunate tendency has had a part in hastening our present social, spiritual and economic crisis—a period in which every individual seems to be sensitive only to his own immediate interests and in which the ideals of public welfare and of political and economic honesty and fair play appear to have become merely formal traditions to which we pay only lip service. The strong tendency to plan instruction which will best serve the individual exclusively along lines of giving him a personal advantage over other individuals is indeed a short-sighted policy. If all individuals are equally so served, there is no net gain. If less than all are served, discrimination has been made. The schools do not exist for the purpose of enabling favored individuals to exploit others. A much more intelligent policy of serving the individual is that which visualizes the net gain of all individuals.

The interests of society and those of the individual are known not to be opposed but instead are largely identical. That curriculum is best for the individual which serves society by promoting social intelligence, enabling the citizenry to recognize and check malignant growths in the social body—to eradicate influences encouraging crime, political dishonesty, economic exploitation of some by others and similar social ills which in recent years have become so distressing. Society's gain is the individual's profit. When social ideals and practices decline, his chances for happiness reduce proportionately.

The success of a democracy demands more than enlightened leaders. Leaders find it difficult to serve only the interests of the entire group when opportunities present themselves so frequently to exploit their positions of leadership to their own profit. They also find it impossible to maintain

themselves in positions of political leadership, if they oppose the selfish interest of powerful intelligent minorities who perceive the issues clearly. They cannot survive politically, even if in their opposition they serve the interest of great majorities, unless these majorities are not only well informed but are difficult to confuse or divert from the real issues by campaign shibboleths or other distractions invented to obscure clear thinking on the part of the masses. Unless we can carry into practice a plan, as suggested by Plato, of placing over us as leaders only those who can have no selfish interests and who serve only the good of the state, the best insurance of social justice is an enlightened, interested, and educated citizenry.

The greatest contribution to the accomplishment of this end may be made by the schools and particularly the junior high-school. The public press has become increasingly politically and economically biased. Its editorial policy is no longer confined to its editorial pages. The church has suffered a materially lessened influence. The radio and the motion picture with their magnificent opportunities for education of all, young and old, are both founded on bed-rock of commercialism of the lowest type and little help can be expected from those quarters. The job must be done in the school. The junior high-school is the last rung in the educational ladder reached by all the future citizenry. Less than 30% of young America finish the senior high-school. In the elementary school the children are immature and the task there is confined largely to developing general ideals of fair dealing and of interest in the welfare of others—most important and fundamental objectives but not in themselves enough.

In the junior high-school classroom instruction, almost as much as in the senior high-school, we have as yet given little evidence of any vision of the possibilities or responsibilities. We have lost ourselves in an academic and vocational forest. Viewed in retrospect a hundred years hence, schoolmen of this

day can hardly escape a severe censure of what shall surely seem an inexplicable stupidity or lack of vision.

Organized crime spreads and threatens property, freedom, and life. Homicide is 16 times as frequent in the United States as in England and Wales. Chicago had a larger annual list of intentional killings than all England, and burglary insurance has become 15 to 20 times as high as in England. Organized crime enforces piratical demands upon legitimate business.

Over twelve million bread winners are unemployed or are unable to make a living except by going further into debt. Over a quarter of our population is dependent upon charity, private or public. A great army of youth, both boys and girls, estimated at more than a quarter million in number, roams over the land, tramps, unwilling exiles, who, expelled by mother nature from childhood, can find no place for themselves in the adult world.

Farmers and residents of cities are being dispossessed of their homes and means of livelihood in such large numbers that it appears that we are on the verge of a return to feudalism involving a peasant class of tenants, who like their industrial brothers will be forced to yield a disproportionate share of their earnings to those whose contribution has been confined to the ability to gain control of the machine and the land.

Bungling, ignorant, and careless politicians have permitted the inequities and iniquities of the obtaining system of taxation to become so unbearable that throughout the country a great part of the taxes cannot be collected, and as a consequence important services supported by the tax receipts have been dangerously impaired. Schools have closed by the thousand. School terms have been shortened to six, five, four and three months. Teachers have gone without salaries. Hospitals have been forced to turn away charity patients. Teachers are in some cities feeding at their own expense thousands of undernourished children for whom there are no public funds available. Police and fire protection service has been reduced. Streets have been permitted to fall into bad repair. Prisons and

jails are overflowing—unsanitary and in a constant state of incipient revolt. Criminals are paroled for no other reason than because there is no more room for them in penal institutions. Long waiting lists have accumulated at the state institutions for the feeble minded and the insane. And all this in spite of the fact that we enjoy to-day as much as in the period previous to the depression a superabundance of labor, raw materials, machines, and transportation—in other words all the essentials except social intelligence—to remedy all these conditions.

Great cities, states, and even the national government pay enormous tribute to organized minorities who have become or have employed professional politicians, and thus obtained control of the governments while the great majority of citizens either have stayed at home on election days or confined their political activity to choosing between republicans and democrats, between the enemies and friends of King George of England, between beer or no beer, between Kingfishes and more dignified demagogues, between Catholics and Quakers, and to voting for names and measures about which they know nothing.

While these parasitic growths fasten themselves upon American democracy, the junior high-school cannot continue to withdraw into a cloistered academic neutrality contenting itself with attempting to stimulate pupils to a partial and temporary mastery of a curriculum which by its very nature can make no great contribution to preparing young people for the responsibilities of their times. Yet I am none too hopeful that the schools will rise to the occasion as they should. Our body of teachers, as a class, start with a great handicap. They have always been in school and have lived largely in an academic world. They have been reared in an atmosphere of words and textbooks. Their philosophy of education has grown up around artificial and superficial catch-phrases of decorative intellectualism and erudition. Large numbers of them are relatively ignorant, someone has said "moronic" with respect to their intelligent understanding of the prob-



lems of their own period of civilization. Their store of knowledge and experience, other than that related to the incidents of their immediate environment, is confined largely to the formalized content of the textbooks they teach—a knowledge which conveniently remains relatively static, and which, once learned, makes little demand upon intellectual effort.

Yet it is upon these teachers and principals the children in the schools must rely for guidance and for leadership in preparing themselves to understand, enjoy, and improve the world into which they have been born. They, even more than the parents, occupy the strategic positions of leadership. Unfortunately many possess little background for such leadership but are essentially small merchants of packages of school facts and skills, tied up in textbooks, and preserved from contact with the trends and problems of the present day group life in an industrial democracy, by the cellophane wrapper of modern scholasticism.

Adjustment of the curriculum to the needs of junior high-school pupils can be really accomplished only after those teachers who are still salvagable have been aroused to the necessity of a background which transcends school textbooks and college courses, and those teachers who will not respond to the pullmotor are professionally laid away. In other words, adapting the curriculum to the needs of twentieth century boys and girls is as much a matter of improving the teacher as of improving the source of study.

Adapting the curriculum to the needs of the individual means to me first of all just such an adaptation as within the last ten minutes I have attempted to indicate. If we as teachers and principals fail to see the needs but instead continue to potter along with the details of an individualistic, academic, and pseudo-vocational curriculum, while the continued disorientation of the American people with respect to their needs and problems and the disintegration of our national ideals render impossible the glorious project of developing in the United States the world's first complete and successful de-



mocracy, we must be a more hopeless group of Ichabod Cranes and school marms than we are sometimes accused of being.

H. H. Ryan, Principal of the Wisconsin High-School of the University of Wisconsin, read his paper entitled *The Teaching and Learning Situation in Junior High-School Classrooms*.

## THE TEACHING AND LEARNING SITUATION IN JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CLASSROOMS

H. H. RYAN,  
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The assignment of a topic like this to a speaker, in a time like this and under such a convention theme as ours, carries a very much greater implication and a very much greater responsibility than it would under ordinary circumstances. I think I see in it a very positive and urgent suggestion of careful attention to questions of economy and efficiency. The implied question is not, "What are some nice things to do in junior high-school classrooms?" It is rather, "In this critical complex of unprecedented circumstances, what are the experiences which, all things considered, will produce the optimum learning for junior high-school pupils?" I think you will concede that that is a real question, and a real responsibility.

In seeking a valid criterion for the worthwhileness of what is done in the classroom, one is disposed to consider, for the moment at least, what might be termed "parental interest", the unpromoted interest which the parent shows with respect to this or that school exercise. Who knows but that it is true that those of our so-called educative activities which interest the fathers and mothers and bring them to the school to visit, or prompt them to check up frequently upon the children's progress, are those which will bear real fruit?

If we may play with that idea for a moment, we shall be impressed with the fact that there are two periods of the

child's schooling, rather widely separated in time, in which parental interest is high. The first is the kindergarten-primary period, in which the pupil is exploring the field of fundamental skills: reading, writing, arithmetic, getting along with other children, etc. The other is the period of vocational training: commercial, legal, medical, pedagogical, or what not. Between these two there is a long interim, during which the parent knows little and cares less about what kind of experiences the teacher sets before the class. So long as those experiences are called by standard names, such as English, algebra, and biology, and so long as they are acceptable to the St. Peter of the college, father and mother treat them as casually as the morning paper and the evening star. So, if this parental interest is a valid criterion, the classroom work of the intermediate, junior high, and senior high-schools is something to weep over.

On the other hand, there is one phase of the secondary-school program in which there is no lack of interest upon the part of the adult section of the school community, the extra-curriculum activities. A football game, a debate, an operetta, or a play, is quite certain to bring out an almost 100% attendance of the fathers and mothers of the participants. At Wisconsin High-School we have recently begun a series of monthly dramatic entertainments. On each of these evenings three one-act plays are given, and there is no charge for admission. As the time approached for the first of these, we wondered whether anyone would bother to come; it was a minor event of the schedule, and but little time had been available for training the young actors. When the curtain arose upon the first play of the evening, standing room was at a premium. Fathers, mothers, aunts, uncles, and neighbors were there to compare the pride of the household with John Barrymore or Ann Harding. On a recent Sunday afternoon we held a meeting of the parents of the basketball players, to decide whether the team should take part in the district tournament in spite of serious financial and geographical handicaps. Only one parent was absent, and in that case the other parent was on hand. All were insistent that the boys should have the experience of taking part in the tournament; the group offered to make up

any financial deficit which might accrue, and agreed to furnish automobiles for free transportation. All stated emphatically that they themselves, the parents, would be on hand for part of the tournament regardless of distance and business engagements. Of this group of parents the great majority are college graduates; all are comfortably situated as regards finances; all the wage earners hold responsible positions; three are college professors. They are not persons who would give themselves up to the sensations of entertainment, parental pride, or school spirit, to the exclusion or neglect of real education. I think we shall have to credit them with the conviction that such activities are productive of genuine and lasting growth in personality. And so far not one of them has come to school to sit along the sidelines with bated breath and pounding pulse while Sonny throws old Euclid for a loss.

There is no doubt that any trained educator who has spent hours and hours in the study of the principles of curriculum building, the nature of individual differences in learning ability, or the potentialities of the social sciences, will experience a violent internal rebellion against such a phenomenon as this, and will wonder what the world is coming to. But we must face it; and, at a time like this, when big business is taking advantage of the financial distress of the general population to push over its long-continued campaign for minimum expenditure for education, and when millions of harrassed voters are trying to make up their minds as to what is worth paying for, the contrast between extra-curriculum enthusiasm and curriculum apathy offers food for serious thought.

Amid the general hue and cry over the needed reduction in governmental expenditures, there is a growing demand that, for the time being at least, the educational frills be eliminated. It may be that this is a reasonable demand. We educators cannot hope to dictate the answer to that question. Only the public itself, by taking stock of its resources, its ability to pay, can say whether it can afford all that we now offer by way of educational experience. If the public insists upon the elimination of frills, we shall have to obey. But it will be our business to say what the frills are. We shall have to set up a valid

working definition of the term "educational frill", and then locate and identify and point out the frills which the now deified taxpayer has been supporting.

A "frill", as the term is generally used, is a thing which is ornamental rather than useful. It is a thing not essential to the main purpose of the article. It is added to attract the eye of the observer, to excite the envy of the rival, to conform to convention, and to satisfy the vanity of the owner. It has no visible influence upon the human need which the article is intended to serve; that is, no utilitarian value. If the purpose of education is "the good life", then let us inquire which conforms more closely to the above definition of frill, algebra or speech training? Latin or home economics? Ancient history or music? What part of our expenditure for training in English should be devoted to teaching Latin grammar with English word? Shall we go on teaching that the first person singular, present tense, of the verb **sing** is "I sing"? Nobody thinks that "I sing" is present tense in English. If one wishes to state that he is at the moment engaged in perpetrating vocal music he says "I am singing". When he says "I sing" he means "I can sing", or "I am in the habit of singing when not forcibly restrained." And yet every year millions of helpless children are taught that the present tense of "sing" is "I sing, you sing, thou singest, he, she, or it sings, we all sing!" Our whole system of verb inflection, as the standard grammars have it, was and is a wholesome imposition of something foreign upon our language by persons who thought that if English wasn't like that, it should be! There are but two plausible explanations for our going ahead, year after year, teaching children these things which deliberately contradict what they already know from experience and observation about their own language. One is our deplorable pedagogical inertia; and the other is the desire of the Latin teachers to have a thousand children study Latin grammar in English in order that a hundred may have a start in the study of Latin.

So, viewed from the angle of practical efficiency, this part of our high-school English course bears the same relation to secondary education that the Paris hat does to the whole cos-

tume; it does nothing to make the subject plain, but it does impart a continental flavor.

Mark you—it is not the educators of America who are demanding the elimination of frills; but if the tax payer insists on paring the curriculum down to the essentials, it is the educators who must determine what the essentials are.

The junior high-school differs from the upper half of our secondary-school in that it has some liberty in the formulation of its own curriculum. In that liberty lies an opportunity to attack directly some of the nation's pressing needs. There are a few outstanding sociological facts which, if they were thoroughly taught to all junior high-school pupils by June first of this year—really taught, to the point of mastery—would do more to bring this country to a rational solution of its major troubles than any influence has accomplished in the last twenty years. For example:

1. The United States hold the all-time world's record for robbery and murder. The most important cause of this condition is found in organized crime, an organization which functions with greater efficiency and greater singleness of purpose than do the institutions of organized society. There you will find steadfast loyalties which equal or excel anything that law-abiding citizens show under the name of patriotism. It is a nation within a nation, just as much at war with the United States of America as any nation has ever been; and from its strategic internal location it lays a strangle hold on the police, the municipal governments, and the courts. It is utterly ruthless and unscrupulous in gaining its ends; and when brought to account it is protected by a hundred restrictions upon prosecution, restrictions that were set up centuries ago to protect the innocent but which now protect the guilty.

2. The deplorable economic condition in which this country now finds itself is not to be thought of as an act of God. It is a miserable miscarriage of human planning. This nation is endowed with all the material things that are needed for the peace and comfort of all its people.

3. Nothing but harm can come from feeling sorry for ourselves. If we make the mistake of looking upon ourselves as pathetic figures, rather than as the ridiculous spectacle that we must be in the eyes of the Supreme Being, we shall certainly be duped into accepting the bromides and palliatives which are suggested for temporary relief; and we shall fail to press on to a genuine solution.

4. There is no excuse whatever for poverty and suffering in America. We have on hand now enough food and manufactured products to make every family in the country comfortable. We have enough raw materials and machinery and work to do, to make every family self-sustaining. A silly paralysis has bound the hands of three groups of people: one group has time on its hands which it cannot use; another has merchandise of which it cannot dispose; and another has wealth, in the form of indebtedness of other people, which it cannot use. We have not been intelligent enough to devise a plan for maintaining a circulation around the perimeter of that vicious triangle.

5. There can be no genuine improvement of our condition without the introduction of a radically new economic principle. We are at the same point in the production of wealth that we had reached a hundred years ago in transportation. At that time our nation had spread out over so much territory that it had become unwieldy. We had gotten all we could out of horseflesh, and nothing lay ahead in that direction. With only the old means of transportation the nation would some day have broken up by reason of its very territorial massiveness. The fact that the forty-eight states still form one nation is due as much to the steam locomotive as to federal victory in the War of the Rebellion. To-day industry has become unmanageable through the unbelievable efficiency of machinery and the consequent overproduction of things in themselves favorable to human comfort. Nothing but a new principle of distribution will furnish a solution.

6. If we continue to use the machinery that we have, and proceed to use the machinery that will be invented, we



can never again keep the entire wage-earning population busy eight hours a day, six days a week, fifty weeks a year, at providing what the population can economically consume. Leisure is inevitable. Whether we continue as we are now going, with unemployment on the increase, or so rearrange our industrial and commercial life as to give each worker both steady employment and greater leisure, there will be less and less time spent in work, and there will be more and more time which must be occupied in other ways. The problem of the use of leisure time will become more serious, year by year.

7. The history of human beings presented with leisure without preparation for leisure is universally tragic. In idle pursuit of happiness the tendency is to revert to the indulgence of primitive impulses. Some of the idle rich of this country exemplify this impoverished resourcefulness. The spectacle of a society woman with her fourth husband and her fifth scandal is not uncommon. Where we used to say, "She moves in the best circles", we now say, "She moves in the best triangles."

8. The attention paid by educators to the problem of education for leisure has always been without the consent of big business. In the main there have been two objections to that program, on the part of the industrial barons. First, this was just another thing to raise the tax rate; and second, it was not intended that workers should have enough leisure to worry about.

9. While we have been alive to the potential value of music, and art, and literature in furnishing profitable uses for leisure time, we have not fully appreciated the possibilities of creative arts and crafts. The time is already here when a woman can buy her clothing more economically than she can make it. But the time will never come when a woman will take more pleasure in the garment which she has bought than in one which she has made, if she is so trained that she can do that well. The factories turn out better and cheaper radio receivers than can be made by the would-be owner; but music from a commercial radio



will never be as sweet as that from the tangle of wires and tubes and transformers that is the product of your own loving hands. The happiest depression victim I have seen is a friend of mine who, when unemployment descended upon him, took himself to the basement with his tools and a few boards, and began to turn out handsome articles of furniture for his own home. Nothing in his home receives more loving attention than those chairs and tables and racks and stands that he has made with his own hands. The foolish little gadgets which any confirmed tinkerer turns out give him a poignant satisfaction which is a compound of purposeful activity and the joy of achievement. The little child's demand, "Look what I made!" is but a frank and honest expression of the kind of ecstasy which middle age feels but often conceals. As time goes on we shall certainly learn to seize upon leisure as an opportunity to supplement the appointments which organized industry furnishes, with the priceless products of our own first-hand efforts.

This paper has attempted to point out three facts which must be considered in the choice of classroom activities for the junior high-school. First: many thoughtful parents show an unmistakable interest in the type of school activity which we call extra-curriculum. Some of the things that parents say and do in this connection suggest a decidedly greater importance and value for these activities than for the items which appear in the program of studies. Perhaps these parental attitudes should be credited more than we have credited them, as criteria of the worth of various school activities.

Second: The demand of the so-called tax payers' alliances in various parts of the country that the "frills" be eliminated from the school program should lead parents and teachers to reflect that there are subjects in the secondary-school curriculum which are there because they have always been there, because it is eminently respectable to offer them, in spite of the fact that only the scantiest intellectual or social profits can be traced to them. The actual "frills" are not at all what the

apostles of minimum school expenditures have in mind when they inveigh against "frills".

Third: The social problems of this country and of the world in general are so tremendous as to demand first place in the thoughts of secondary-school pupils. Critical economic and sociological facts must be so thoroughly taught to adolescents that junior high-school graduates will never be content with anything less than a real and constructive solution of these problems. Even if solutions were now ready, they could not be introduced into the political order without a persistent demand for better things, from a people united in the conviction that a crime-ridden society of technological paupers is utterly unnecessary.

### GROUP No. 3

The Junior College Section met on Tuesday afternoon in the east room. J. B. Holloway, Professor of Education, University of Kentucky, presided. Professor of Education W. C. Eels, of Stanford University, read his paper, *The Tax-Supported Junior College During the Next Decade*.

## THE TAX SUPPORTED JUNIOR COLLEGE DURING THE NEXT DECADE

WALTER CROSBY EELS,

Professor of Education, Stanford University

Editor, *The Junior College Journal*

It is dangerous at any time to attempt the role of prophet; that danger is only accentuated in such a period as the present of economic, social and educational stress and strain and readjustment. No such role will be attempted in this paper. It may be possible, however, to point out certain significant trends, to analyze some important factors, and to express a few judgments as to desirable developments in the junior college field during the next decade.

It is now exactly ten years since Dr. Leonard V. Koos, working in Minneapolis at the University of Minnesota, com-

pleted in 1923 his epoch-making pioneer study of the status and prospects of the junior college movement. It seems therefore a particularly appropriate time and place to consider the achievements of the past decade and to look forward to possible or probable developments during the decade that is ahead of us. This will be done under seven headings, number of institutions, enrollment, size, type, curriculum, legal status, and support.

First, however, it may be well to pause for a moment to summarize in two or three sentences the growth during the past decade and the present status of this highly significant segment of American education. Koos reported seventy public junior colleges with an enrollment of 8,000 students. Seventeen of these were normal schools, however, which are not now included in the list of junior colleges. If these are omitted his figures would give 51 institutions with an enrollment of something over 5,000. To-day, on the other hand, in thirty-one states, there are reported 189 public junior colleges, almost four times as many with an enrollment of 68,000, or twelve times as many as in 1923. To-day there are more students enrolled in the public junior colleges of the one state of Illinois (the state in which the first public junior college still existing is found—Joliet, under the direction of the President of this Department, Mr. Haggard) than there were in the entire country ten years ago. Such a growth is truly phenomenal. These figures take no account of the even larger number of private junior colleges, swelling the total enrollment to over 100,000 for the first time last year, and leaving only two states, the smallest in the Union—not in area but in population—Wyoming and Nevada—without some type of junior college within their borders. The junior college movement has shown a growth in three decades, most of it in the last decade, which compares favorably in many respects with three centuries of development in the senior college and university world.

#### **Number of Institutions.**

Is the rapid increase in the number of public junior colleges—an average of twelve or fourteen a year (depending

upon whether the nineteen normal schools of Koos' investigation are included)—likely to continue? Probably not. Yet it shows no signs of cessation even under depression conditions. It is still full of vigor and vitality. This year's *Junior College Directory* shows the names of ten new public junior colleges in seven different states. If the rate of increase should continue at ten or eleven a year, the country would have close to three hundred such public institutions by 1943. I am rather inclined to doubt whether this will take place, although it is not unreasonable when we consider the remarkable development of the past decade and the increasing acceptance of the fundamental philosophy that is characteristic of the junior-college movement at its best. The justification of the junior college is in its larger educational opportunity to a greater number of students, in its possibility for better instructional methods, and in its wider adaptation to local community needs. With the spread of this underlying conception of usefulness to society, there is sure to be a further increase especially in sections of the country where it is not as yet fully understood and appreciated.

Consider for a moment the six states having the largest number of public junior colleges to-day. I do not claim, of course, that all of the existing institutions are justified. Some junior colleges have been organized with more enthusiasm than educational judgment. Some four-year colleges now existing are not entirely free from the same fault. Following are the number of public junior colleges in each of these six states and the average population, in round numbers, for each such institution in the state:

STATE—	Number of Public Junior Colleges	Average Pop- ulation Per Junior College
Texas .....	20	292,000
Mississippi .....	11	201,000
Kansas .....	14	188,000
Oklahoma .....	14	171,000
California .....	35	163,000
Iowa .....	27	92,000
	<hr/> 117	<hr/> 173,000

Probably few who are well acquainted with the conditions in each of these states would claim that it has too many junior colleges, unless it be in the case of Iowa. Certainly we have plenty of evidence in California that there are not too many to satisfy the educational needs of our state. Yet the average population per junior college in California differs only slightly from the average for the six states. These states have a total population which is one-sixth of that of the entire country. If the rest of the country were as well supplied with such institutions there would be something over 700. I feel quite confident that this number will not be reached in the next decade, if ever. Population is not the only determining factor. Yet it is reasonable to expect that we may have a much larger number of public junior colleges in the country in 1943 than in 1933. Some of the reasons for this expectation will be given in the discussion of the next topic.

### Enrollment.

Much more important than number of junior colleges is number of junior college students. It is students, not institutions, which are the real reason for the junior college movement. I have already mentioned that in the last decade enrollment in public junior colleges increased twelve-fold while the number of such institutions increased four-fold. Thus they have been growing much more rapidly in size than in number—a healthy sign. There are many indications that enrollment will make even greater strides during the next decade. What are a few of these indications?

(1) As this new type of collegiate institution establishes itself in public knowledge and confidence, as the high-school graduates learn of the varied types of curricula that the larger progressive institutions can offer, the enrollment is sure to be influenced markedly. The mere extension of knowledge concerning junior-college education and its potentialities, then, is the first factor that I would mention.

(2) The tremendous increase in popularity of the American high-school, unprecedented throughout the world, is

the second factor. We are told, for example, that there are more students enrolled in the secondary-schools of Los Angeles than in all of Austria; that there are more high-school students in Detroit, a city of one million, than in London, a city of seven million; that there are more high-school boys and girls in New York City than in all the secondary-schools of France. All of the young people graduating from these high-schools are not going to be content to stop their education at that point. In fact, if our conception of the junior college as the completion of secondary or general education is a correct one, they ought not to stop there, but to go on for at least two years more.

There are over four million high-school students in America to-day, and this is only half the number of high-school age. All are possible junior-college material. If all went to junior college the attendance at any one time would be upward of two million. Of course not all will go, soon or ever, either to junior colleges or to senior colleges and universities, but may we not expect many more to do so as the junior college movement spreads and gains age and prestige? In California there are in round numbers 200,000 regular high-school students and 20,000 regular junior-college students. If the same proportion should hold throughout the country in the next decade there would be four or five hundred thousand students in public junior colleges instead of almost seventy thousand as at the present time. When the increase in a single decade has been from eight thousand to seventy thousand, one hesitates to set limits to the possible enrollment at the close of another decade.

(3) The present unemployment situation is sure to affect markedly the enrollment in public junior colleges, in fact it has already done so. Formerly it was comparatively easy for the high-school graduate to stop school and secure a job. Now with no jobs in sight, thousands are returning to the high-schools, instead, for postgraduate work of various types. The United States office of Education reported recently as a result of an extensive investigation that in many cities three or four

times as many post-graduates were enrolled in high-schools this year as were enrolled a few years ago. The city in which we are holding this meeting, Minneapolis, reported 505 such graduate students in the high schools.

A report this month from San Francisco, with no junior college, shows 3,400 graduate high-school students. High-school registration of former students has increased 800 per cent throughout the United States in the last ten years. Such a situation is an educational anomaly. The high-schools are not organized for post-graduate work. A study of the early history of many public junior colleges, for example in Chicago, Detroit, Kansas City and Los Angeles, shows that they were in large part outgrowths of just such demands for post-graduate courses on the part of returning high-school graduates who had no place else to go. The present economic conditions are accentuating that demand exceedingly, and should stimulate the formation of new public junior colleges as well as increase attendance in those now existing.

At New Britain, Connecticut, the Board of Education was told recently in a petition signed by 118 high-school students that many seniors, due to graduate this month, were deliberately flunking their courses to circumvent an order of the board banning graduate courses. The order was issued as a so-called "economy measure." The petition said that many members of the February graduating class will be unable to attend college, and that they should be permitted to take a post-graduate course rather than remain idle.

The Office of Education reports that junior-college enrollments have increased greatly and that cities in which public junior colleges are located have few post-graduates attending high-school classes, while cities not provided with junior colleges have overflow enrollments of post-graduate high-school students attending both day and night classes.

(4) A fourth factor is economy. The economy to the individual student and to his parents of securing two years of college education at home instead of at some university



at a considerable distance from his home is obvious and needs no argument. In the present era of sharply reduced incomes, thousands of parents still ambitious for the benefits of college education for their sons and daughters are finding that it is not a question of choice between a university and a junior college, but that economic necessity compels a choice between junior college and no college at all. Striking examples of this may be found in the personal experiences of a large number of students at Crane Junior College, Chicago, which are reported in the current issue (March, 1933) of the *Junior College Journal*.

(5) If the curriculum is properly broadened and adapted to a variety of needs of a variety of students, as suggested in a later section, it will serve still further to increase the enrollments on the part of thousands of young men and young women who, due to no fault of their own but due to changed and changing economic conditions, are sure not to secure remunerative employment at the close of high-school as easily as before, if at all.

Many aspects of the present economic situation, we trust, are but temporary. Whether or not, however, we agree with all that our technocratic experts are telling us, there seems little doubt that with increasing complexity of modern social and industrial life, the average age for entering employment is likely to be considerably higher than formerly. Young men and young women are not going to remain at home in contented but dangerous idleness. Either we must provide additional education for them as they remain at home, not only to keep them busy but also better to fit them for their places in our increasingly complex social and economic life, or else we face the unpleasant alternative of having them, with the restlessness of unemployed youth, join the already far too extensive number of young men and unfortunately young women—no, of mere boys and girls still in their teens—who are wandering over the country, stealing rides in box cars or hitch hiking aimlessly from one city to the next. At first, perhaps, they are honestly seeking work, but after repeated

failure to find it, what more natural than that this ragged, hungry army of youth should lapse into a vagrant class, chum with degenerate associates, prey upon society, and become potential criminals?

Various estimates have been made of the number of boys and girls of high-school age and a little older who are thus roaming over the country. They range in number from 200,000 to 1,000,000 or larger. Between September 1, 1931, and April 30, 1932, the Southern Pacific Railroad alone ejected no less than 416,915 trespassers, many of them under twenty-one years of age. Thousands of others were allowed to ride unmolested. The conditions are worse now. The chief of the division of mental hygiene of the California State Department of Education stated only ten days ago that there were in California alone 200,000 or more "wandering boys" under eighteen years of age. Over eleven thousand came into California during the month of January alone on Southern Pacific trains. Surely this nomad army of wandering youth, half starved, often ill, rapidly acquiring distorted outlooks on life as they are passed on from one city to another until in California at least they can go no farther West, presents one of the most tragically shocking and distressing problems of the whole depression. To my way of thinking the public junior college, widely diffused and fully adapted to a variety of needs and abilities, encouraging young people to stay at home instead of taking to the road and the hobo jungle, offers one very powerful and hopeful remedy for this unhealthy condition which is threatening so seriously the social, economic and political health and welfare of the nation.

What has been the actual effect of these five factors which I have thus outlined? President Raymond Walters' careful analyses of enrollments in American colleges and universities, published annually in *School and Society*, show that the rapid increases so characteristic a few years ago has virtually ceased during the past two or three years. In fact, this year he reports a loss of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. On the other hand, we find little slowing up in the rate of increase in public junior col-

leges. In the 164 public junior colleges for which data were available for both 1930-31 and 1931-32 the enrollment increased 12 per cent. The greatest gains were registered in California, Illinois, Kansas, Mississippi, Minnesota and Oklahoma. Unfortunately comparable data are not available on a national basis for the current year as compared with 1931-32. In California, however such data have been furnished by the State Department of Education. In our state the total enrollment in all public junior colleges last October showed an increase of 16 per cent over that of the previous October. The more significant fact, the number of regular students—full-time freshmen and sophomores—showed an increase of 4,500, or 24 per cent. In Los Angeles in February of this year, 1,800 new students entered the local junior college. Reports recently collected by Dr. D. S. Campbell, secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, from 130 public junior colleges show an average increase in enrollment this year of 26 per cent in three-quarters of these institutions, the others showing a decrease of only 11 per cent. There is yet no depression or stagnation in enrollment in public junior colleges. When we consider the varying forces that have caused and are continuing to cause this growth, there is little reason to anticipate any marked slowing down in the next few years.

### Size.

Size of institution, of course, is a corollary of the number of junior colleges and the enrollment in them—the two factors which have just been discussed. It may therefore be considered very briefly. The junior college in the past and far too often in the present has been and is a small institution—much too small for efficiency. Koos found but a single one (if normal schools be omitted) with an enrollment in excess of 1,000, and only two more that had over 300 students. The average enrollment was 143, the median only 60. To-day the situation is strikingly different. There are thirteen which report enrollments in excess of 1,000 and forty-three others

with more than 300 students each. Last year the average enrollment in all public junior colleges was 360.

There are still many institutions that are distinctly too small for efficiency although perhaps filling an important if narrow field, but the improvement in a single decade has been very marked indeed. I do not profess to know how many students are required to make an efficient college, and I am not sure that it can be stated numerically independent of other factors, but I am coming in my own thinking to feel that a minimum enrollment of close to 300 students is probably needed. If a large proportion of the junior colleges which are now below that suggested figure can reach it during the next decade, a great advance in educational efficiency is sure to follow. There is a greater need for better junior colleges than for more junior colleges. There is certainly every indication that enrollment is going to continue to increase more rapidly than number of institutions and that the size of the existing junior colleges will increase correspondingly.

### Type.

The question of type of junior college organization has been widely discussed in educational literature, especially the desirability of the four-year type of institution which would combine the last two years of the high school with the first two years of the traditional college course. The relative merits of the six-four-four plan and of the six-three-three-two plan were discussed quite fully by President George F. Zook and the speaker before this same department at its Washington meeting last year, and there is no need to go into the matter extensively at the present time.\*

It may be interesting, however, to summarize the actual form of organization of the 183 public junior colleges which reported on this matter last November. At that time 164 institutions reported that they were organized on the two-year basis, eight on the four-year basis, eight on the six-

\**Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, March, 1932. No. 40, pp. 231-258.

year basis, while one was experimenting with a three-year arrangement, and two were one-year institutions only. Of the eight experimenting with the four-year type of organization, three were in California, two in Mississippi, two in Texas and one in Missouri.

It is too early to evaluate some of these very interesting experiments which have been in progress a relatively short time. Some have been abandoned already, others have been modified markedly since their inception. The two-year junior college, as a transitional type of institution, somewhat higher than the necessary restrictions of the high school, distinctly lower than the scholarly specialization and greater independence of the university, will undoubtedly, it seems to me, be the prevailing type of junior college during the next decade. I see no reason to modify the statement regarding this matter which I made three years ago:\*

"There is room for a variety of types of public institutions. There should be freedom to experiment with two-, three- or four-year junior colleges, under a variety of circumstances and conditions. Junior colleges should not all be poured into the same mould. It would be unfortunate now, if ever, to restrict them too rigidly by legislation. It is desirable, however, that legislation should be so framed as to prevent the organization of too many weak, struggling, inefficient units, with insufficient attendance and inadequate support."

There is a considerable feeling in some quarters that the entire period of general education prior to university specialization should be shortened by two years and some experiments, of which that at Kansas City is best known, are being carried on in this direction. On the other hand there is an equally strong or stronger feeling on the part of others that the increasing complexity of modern civilization, the changing economic conditions, and the scarcity of remunerative employment justify a longer period of formal education. In my

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\*Walter C. Eells, *The Junior College*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1931. P. 796.

judgment the latter is much more likely to be the development of the next decade than the former.

### **The Curriculum.**

Very significant changes may and should occur in the curriculum of the public junior college in the next decade. The curriculum of the junior college in the past has been narrow and restricted—far too much so—due to the newness of the institution, the small size of the student body, and the dominance of the state university. In many institutions only a university preparatory curriculum has been offered. With increased attendance, permanence and independence this is already being remedied in many colleges and is destined to be in many others.

Secretary Ray Lyman Wilbur says:

"I am satisfied that the junior college is a large part of the answer to the question as to what shall be done with our youth as we feel the need for more understanding and more training for a necessarily more complicated life."

A more complicated life requires a more complicated curriculum. With the popularization of the idea that the junior college is the completion unit of general education prior to university specialization, and that it is the college for all the people instead of for those only with university aspirations, is coming a corresponding broadening of the curriculum to include a wide variety of terminal courses of various types, some semi-professional in nature, some more purely cultural and civic.

The Carnegie Foundation Commission, in its recent report on the Higher Educational System of California, recommends a "Curriculum for Social Intelligence" which is "devised to give the student about to complete his general education a unitary conception of our developing civilization. It should be the most important curriculum, inasmuch as it aims to train for social citizenship in American civilization." The

Commission feels that this type of curriculum should appeal to 85 per cent of the student body.

The interesting experiment inaugurated on the campus of the University of Minnesota this year in their new junior college with a general curriculum which cuts across many of the traditional departmental boundaries is in my judgment an effort to achieve very much the same thing that the Carnegie Report has so happily christened "social intelligence." The very significant but sometimes misunderstood work being done in semi-professional courses at Los Angeles Junior College also deserves special mention. These are not, as sometimes supposed, courses training for a specific job, but are units in a unique experiment which Dr. Snyder at that institution is trying to work out of developing simultaneously what he designates as "vision" and "skill"—another phrasing of the same underlying idea of social intelligence.

With the increased attendance at junior colleges on the part of a wide variety of students, many of whom should doubtless never look forward to upper division university specialization and professional work, it seems to me that we are likely to have very significant diversification and adaptation of the curriculum during the next decade. It is likely to become, in truth, the people's college with all that is implied in the best sense of that sometimes misunderstood and misused phrase.

The junior college of the future will also most certainly place greater emphasis upon adult education, both cultural and technical in nature. In many cases the adult educational needs of a community can be met much better by a local junior college faculty and equipment than when it is forced to depend upon absentee, long-distance, university-extension service. From ten to fifty local cultural centers in a state are far better than a single centralized one. The decentralization and diffusion of cultural education through a widely diversified curriculum is likely to be one of the outstanding developments in the junior college field in the next decade.



### Legal Status.

A decade ago legislation authorizing junior colleges was found in only ten states. To-day in at least twenty-two states they have been recognized by law. In fourteen of these such legislation may be classified as *general*, in the sense that it defines conditions under which junior colleges may be organized in the form of enabling laws. In the others it has been limited to specific bills establishing particular junior colleges, usually of the state type. What may we expect of the future? Economic conditions may cause a temporary lull in new legislation, yet at the same time as already shown these very same economic conditions are powerful factors making for the further development of the junior college movement. There are eight or ten more states in which there is no junior college legislation as yet, but in which it has been introduced quite recently. It seems that there is little or no doubt that similar legislation will be introduced again and that it is only a question of a few years, perhaps within the decade, when legislation specifically legalizing junior colleges will be found in all of the thirty-one states in which they are now found, and that such authorization will extend to other states as well. These laws will probably be more definite and specific than many of those now found. In many states the existing laws, often vague and unsatisfactory, will doubtless be modified to define more specifically the conditions under which junior colleges may be organized and the methods by which they may be financed and administered.

### Support.

I have left for final consideration what seems to me the most important development that is desirable in the public junior college field during the next decade. I refer to the matter of finance. The subject of my paper, as suggested to me by Mr. Haggard, was "The *Tax-Supported Junior College During the Next Decade*." So far, I have tacitly assumed that *tax-supported* was synonymous with *public*, and have been discussing the public junior college, regardless of method of support.

As a matter of fact, however, these two words unfortunately are far from synonymous in many cases. Many so-called *public* junior colleges charge tuition to the students who attend them—in some cases quite a substantial amount. This is quite inconsistent with the theory of free public education through the secondary or general period prior to specialization. In Texas it has been shown that 77 per cent of the costs of operation of all the municipal junior colleges in the State is met by student tuition. In several states all of the instructional costs are covered by student tuition. In 226 *public* universities and colleges in the United States, however, the students pay in tuition and fees only 15 per cent of the total cost of their education. In the 850 *private* colleges and universities of the country the students pay 48 per cent of the cost—less than half. In many of the so-called *public* junior colleges, on the other hand, to cite Washington and Iowa as examples as well as Texas and others that might be named, the students are paying from sixty to eighty per cent of the total cost of their education—more than even in the private colleges and universities of the country. Have we any real right to speak of these as *tax-supported* junior colleges? That the junior college has grown at all in these states, in spite of such handicaps, is most striking testimony to the essential virility and soundness of the junior-college principle.

What is the actual situation to-day? Of the six states already mentioned as having shown the greatest growth during the past year, Minnesota is the only one in which substantial tuition was charged to a majority of the students. If we take the group of seven states (Arizona, California, Idaho, Illinois, Kansas, Mississippi and North Carolina) in which all or a majority of the junior-college students are attending tuition-free institutions, we find that they include almost two-thirds (64%) of the junior-college enrollment of the country. In these seven states the increase of students last year amounted to almost six thousand. In the other twenty-two where public institutions exist but largely on a tuition basis, it was only two thousand. In five of these states there was a loss.

The contrast is well illustrated in the case of the two states with the largest junior-college enrollments—Texas and California. Last year the thirty-five public junior colleges in California, charging no tuition, showed a gain of 3,341 students, or 12 per cent. The twenty in Texas, however, where over three-quarters of the support comes directly from student tuition, not only showed no gain but an actual loss of one per cent. As already mentioned the increase in regular students in California this present year has been much greater—24 per cent.

Or consider the neighboring states of Kansas and Iowa. In Iowa, where the typical charge for tuition is about \$100 per student, the twenty-seven public institutions have an average enrollment of only 71 students and increased all over the state only 134 or 7 per cent last year; in Kansas, with a smaller total population, where no tuition is charged, the average size of the institution is over four times as great as in Iowa (321) and there was an increase in enrollment last year of 1,128 students, or 54 per cent.

In a study which I made three years ago, I found that the enrollment in the colleges which charged tuition, over half of the entire group, was slightly over one-quarter of the total enrollment. The average enrollment in the tuition-charging colleges was 122; in those not charging tuition it was 358, almost three times as great.

Can society afford junior colleges? Are they not among the fads and frills which the present depression will force out of the picture? Or are they an integral and essential part of the educational system and destined to endure? We are being told by some educational leaders that we cannot afford to give free public education beyond the high-school—some say beyond the tenth grade. It is difficult to accept such judgments when we realize that our whole extensive system of public education, from the kindergarten through to junior college and the university is costing an average of only ten cents per day for each person of voting age in the United States. Even if there were little or no *educational* value to

the junior college, society could well afford to pay for all they cost under present conditions merely as custodial institutions to help in keeping young people from hitch hiking over the country. Junior colleges are cheaper than reform schools and penitentiaries.

The tax burden is undoubtedly too heavy on certain forms of wealth. The farmer and home owner are paying too large a share of the taxes. In California approximately 28 per cent of the wealth of the state has been furnishing over 84 per cent of the revenue for the public school system of the state. Tax adjustment is a crying need. The answer to such a gospel of educational degeneracy as is implied in stopping free public education at the junior high-school level was best given last November by the people of Kansas, an essentially agricultural state, where the public junior colleges are all true tax-supported institutions and no tuition is charged. The Tax Limitation Amendment to the Constitution which was up for consideration was decisively defeated. This amendment, fostered by politicians who sought to curtail school support, would have limited taxes to such an extent that scores of high-schools and elementary schools would have suffered and the public junior colleges would probably all have been obliged to discontinue.

In terms of finance, then, we need a readjustment of the tax burden, we need removal of all tuition charges, we need recognition that the state as a whole as well as the local community must share in the support of public junior colleges which are of benefit to the entire state as well as to the local community. Lack of time forbids me to go more fully into this matter, nor is it necessary, for two years ago before this same Department in its meeting at Detroit I presented a paper, "The Public Junior College as an Agency of Democracy—the Financial Aspect." I have seen no reason to change my convictions or modify the arguments which I made at that time. I shall here only repeat the three concluding sentences from that paper:\*

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\**Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, March, 1931, No. 35. Pp. 134-150.

"Little, if any, tuition should be charged in public junior colleges; certainly not any greater in amount than that charged to freshmen and sophomores in state colleges and universities. The state, from state funds, should provide at least fifty per cent of the total costs of junior college education. When these two principles have been accepted in fact as well as in theory we shall have gone far toward making the junior college not only educationally and socially democratic, but financially democratic as well."

I am not optimistic enough to believe that these financial adjustments are likely to be made in all our states during the next decade, but the chances are good that they may be made in some of them. The courageous action of the tax-distressed Kansas farmers in refusing to abolish their truly tax-supported junior colleges is significant. I want to express here not a prophecy but a conviction that in this direction lies the greatest need for junior-college advance in the next decade. Given true tax-supported institutions, with the state contributing its share, desirable developments in number, in size, in enrollment, and in curriculum will follow inevitably.

### Conclusion.

The junior college of the next decade must be a bigger institution than the junior college of the present, but it must not be too big. On the other hand, it can and must be a truly great institution in the true sense of the word. It will be truly great, great in its unique educational contribution, if it recognizes fully the limitations and boundaries of its own fields, deliberately delimits its functions, and represses any ambitious university aspirations; if it finds supreme satisfaction and contentment in doing thoroughly the work of the freshman and sophomore years better than they have ever been done before; if it places prime emphasis upon superior instruction at the college level; if it has the courage to experiment with the expansion of the lower division years laterally to include new fields and unexplored opportunities at

the same level, but does not try to usurp the field of the university above or of the high-school below. Herein lies the opportunity of the junior college in the next decade to be a really great institution, regardless of enrollment, and to make a really distinctive contribution to the democratization of collegiate education in America.

G. H. Vande Bogart, President of Northern Montana School at Havre, Montana, read his paper, *Public Relations of the Junior College*.

## PUBLIC RELATIONS OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

G. C. VANDE BOGART,  
President, Northern Montana College,  
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Conditions prevalent in America at the present time provide a challenging situation for the entire educational system. Any institution for public service, whether maintained by private benefaction or by revenues from taxation, must justify as never before the extent and quality of its service. Never in public institutions of any kind has there been so great a need of discriminating economies administered under expert technical direction rather than forced upon us by public hysteria or political expediency. The inability to protect our schools and colleges from unwise economy and excessive curtailment is due, in a majority of instances, to our own failure to inform the public clearly and honestly of the achievements, the purposes, and the basic, imperative needs of our institutions. At a time when public and private educational institutions are more than usually dependent upon public understanding, it is no small part of the administrator's responsibility to place his institution effectively and favorably before his community. Adverse criticism of education is almost invariably the result of insufficient information.

In the field of public school administration, which is of interest to a large number in this audience, a study is in



progress to determine the principal criticism or points of attack at the present time. Suggestions are also being compiled to show how these criticisms may best be answered. Although only partial returns are available, certain noteworthy facts appear in this study. Criticisms of the public schools show a considerable range but center chiefly about costs, particularly increases in costs, the content of the courses of study with the constantly recurring expression "fads and frills," lack of sound business management, inefficient teaching, and failure of the schools to prepare the student for practical occupations. These are the major criticisms. The survey, reporting the collective thinking of a number of able school administrators, presents many effective and logical answers to each of these points. A complete report of this study will be available at a later time.

The fact that criticism centers so definitely around certain points of school procedure, indicates an unusual opportunity for effective public relations work and it shows clearly the urgent need for greater attention to this phase of school administration. The superintendent of one of our larger city systems states the situation clearly: "The chief difficulty in the whole matter is that the people generally are either uninformed or misinformed in school matters." Another superintendent reports to his community through a "Personal Column" once each week those matters which he regards as interesting and valuable to the public. He treats one topic at each time and endeavors to make his presentation complete, frank, and so prepared that it will be interesting to the reader. Another superintendent in one of our large cities states that in his community two public meetings are held each week at which school patrons meet to discuss legislation for the welfare of the schools. Their state legislature in session at the present time is considering economy measures of various kinds. In other cities the cooperation of the press has been enlisted effectively, special reports and bulletins have been issued, and addresses have been made before community organizations in order that the facts may be made known to the public, fully and frankly. The systematic analysis of local criticisms indicated by many of the superintendents who have cooperated



in this study, and their carefully planned informational service to the public, are hopeful signs looking toward the future welfare of the schools. Many of the junior colleges represented here to-day are sharing in this phase of the public relations problem because of their relationship to their local city schools.

The junior college, new as it is, has proved during the past three decades of its existence the fact that it is doing, and is prepared to do with still greater effectiveness, a most essential work in American education. Vitally important as is the junior college, it is most essential that the public know of its distinctive place in education, of the service that it is giving, and that it bids fair to extend in greater measure as it assumes a larger range of functions and as its potentialities become realizations. It is obvious that no institution may progress far beyond the understanding of the community which it serves. It is equally obvious that the able and far-sighted administrator will recognize the problem of public relations as one of the major divisions of his work.

The subject of public relations of the junior college will be presented by considering three practical questions, each of which occurs to us immediately when we consider this phase of administrative responsibilities. These questions may be stated as follows:

1. What materials are to be supplied in the field of educational information?
2. Through what media may the various organizations, groups, and individuals of the community be reached?
3. What further developments may be effectively attained in the public relations of our junior colleges?

Much research of value has been completed in the field of public school publicity. Attention has been given for many years, also, to the scientific study of public relations of higher institutions. In the case of the junior college, much of our earlier study of publicity must be re-evaluated in terms of ad-

justment of these important institutions to the economic conditions of the present day as they are reflected in our schools. The very newness of the junior college has given it flexibility of program and of policies, and has made it especially alert to opportunities for service to its community and for adjustment and reorganization as these have become necessary at the present time. A new fund of information must be collected, organized, and placed consistently, continuously, and completely, before the public. It is to this end that we are devoting our discussion at the present time.

**The Materials of Public Relations.**—The materials of public relations will vary widely with the specific type of institution and with the community which it is to serve. There are, however, certain fundamental principles applicable to all junior colleges, and to a large measure effective in our high schools, to which we shall limit this phase of our discussion. The first essentials of publicity materials are accuracy, honesty, and completeness. These will build and retain public confidence. Educational information must have, of course, an appeal for the group and for the individual—that quality designated by our friends of the press as “reader interest.”

The adaptation of publicity materials to the individual or group constitutes one of the best tests of effectiveness in the publicity program. Obviously the service clubs will be interested in an interpretation of the local junior college that indicates to them what the institution is doing for the community in terms of human values, the improvement of local education, the possibilities of service through the various facilities available not only for the students but possibly, to some extent, for adult education. The Woman's Club would like to hear of the opportunities for individual students and the significance of the junior college to the culture of the community. The Chamber of Commerce may, among other things, wish to hear of the financial saving to local citizens and of the income to the community, its growth, and of the efficiency of its organization. The Parent-Teachers' Association will be glad to know more of the opportunities that await the high-school student when he is prepared for college, as

well as of the benefits to the local public schools due to the coöperation of the junior college. These types of publicity are pointed out as representative and not as all-inclusive or mutually exclusive for the respective groups.

In selecting materials for the public relations program, a preliminary survey of publicity values may be effectively employed. Permit me to illustrate. In Northern Montana College a survey was made in 1929, and again in 1932, of the entire freshman class to determine what factors were of greatest importance in bringing them to the institution. The principal results ascertained were as follows:

In 1929 the following percentages of freshmen stressed those indicated below as the principal reasons (of a suggested list of ten) which influenced their choice of a college:

- 84% Nearer Home
- 76% Better opportunity for individual instruction
- 68% Lower cost
- 42% Preference of parents
- 31% Advice of friends

A similar survey in 1932 showed the following results:

- 93% Lower cost
- 56% Better opportunity for individual instruction
- 43% Nearer home
- 38% Preference of parents
- 25% Advice of friends.

Evidently these factors were most important in building a desirable quantity and quality of enrollment. Accordingly, the later publicity material was developed largely around these points. In order to ascertain the reactions of business and professional men, an open forum was arranged by a service club in which discussion was directed to the favorable presentation of the college to parents and public. An all-college convocation, under the direction of the student cabinet, provided a discussion in which students pointed out advantages from their own point of view with valuable suggestions for presenting these facts to parents, high-school graduates, and the gen-

eral public. They were, in order of their importance, as follows: Individual conferences with instructors in all subjects, convenience to their homes, low costs, full accrediting of all departments, equipment in laboratories, and library.

Discussions with parents and high-school principals in many parts of the large territory served by the college brought to light the fact that parents inquired chiefly about: Curricula offered, costs, living arrangements. They were interested, too, in achievements of certain members of the faculty, and in the recent growth of the institution. High-school administrators were particularly interested in the generalized curriculum, faculty qualifications, and teaching procedures, and in the progress of students from their own nearby high-schools. A survey of alumni and former students would doubtless be valuable in this connection. A clipping file maintained by the college library reflected the interests of the various communities in the territory and included also publicity issued to the press by various other colleges.

These are representative procedures that may be employed in any junior college which is interested in increasing the effectiveness of its public relations program. For your convenience I have included in the display available at this time, a number of representative types of publicity materials.

Effective public relations planning demands that the organization be continuous and that it be carefully planned in advance with reference to certain objectives. The reasons for continuous publicity are too apparent to require discussion. Suffice it to say that the public is always interested in education news that carries an appeal, that strikes a note of common interest, and that is information rather than propaganda. Any institution which is so frequently under public observation will build about itself a community opinion, favorable or otherwise, determined by the information upon which that opinion is based. Factual material presented in advance will prevent many an unpleasant situation for the school administrator. Furthermore, if the administrator can predict possible points of criticism and release carefully planned infor-

mation in advance, he will have the advantage of giving out this information as a service to the public rather than as a defensive measure after the attack has been made. The contrast between these situations requires no comment. Into the program of publicity will be woven timely information through the various media, which will be discussed presently, and it will, of course, be adapted to the type of presentation used.

**Media of Public Relations.**—Closely related to the wise selection of material is the equally important problem of the channels through which educational information is to be made available for the public. While these vary greatly in different communities the brief list which follows will cover the majority of possibilities: News stories in the daily or weekly press, student publications, alumni publications, catalogs, administrative or departmental reports, bulletins issued regularly or upon special occasions, field representatives, public addresses, radio programs, pamphlets, form letters, etc., for mailing.

Here again we must emphasize the adapting of materials to these media, not only with reference to timeliness, but with reference to the needs and purposes of the individual junior college. By way of illustration, we may cite the news story as typical. Many a publicity director has mistakenly boasted of the column inches of news that he has had printed. This is no guarantee of effectiveness. Many a long suffering editor would have preferred that this information be condensed into items of sixty to one hundred words, which is a desirable amount for general press releases, or that items be furnished with greater selective attention to timeliness and reader interest. Many a radio dial has been turned to cut off the speaker who permits himself to become wearisome from excessive detail or because of too fervent pleas for support of his institution. The same radio audience would gladly tune in for material furnished by the college that is informative, of practical interest, and is cleverly and clearly presented. A public address specifically planned for a certain audience and perhaps supplemented by material that may be placed in the hands of

the individuals for their reminder or for further information will cause them to look forward to hearing the speaker again. In every one of these cases the junior college will gain not only by the picture of the institution as presented, but in that all-important factor of good will.

**Organization.**—For the junior college which is about to develop an integrated plan for public relations, five types of organization are available. First, all publicity material may be prepared and released under the direction of the administrative offices. Second, a member of the faculty, possibly with a title such as "director of public relations", may take charge of this work. Third, a faculty committee, or a departmental staff may take charge of this program. Fourth, a committee composed jointly of faculty and students may function effectively. Fifth, the public information program may be executed wholly or in part by other agencies not included in the above. In any event, it is necessary that a long period plan, flexible enough to be adjusted to unexpected situations, be formulated. The fundamental purposes should be kept constantly in mind, and the plan organized in terms of specific interests in the institution and about definite objectives, whether these be increased facilities in buildings, equipment, or staff, maintaining of the established program, protecting the salary schedule, or improving the enrollment in standards of quality or in numbers. The general publicity program must be directed sharply and definitely along the lines of the recognized needs of the institution.

It is obvious that the individual or individuals to whom the responsibility of the public relations program may be delegated must be in the full confidence of the administrative office, and must be fully informed concerning the plans and proposed policies in order that the content and the organization of the publicity material may be effective. No phase of public education is so fraught with possibilities for benefit or for injury as is the relationship of the institution to the public.

**Possibilities of Public Relations.**—This final section of the discussion may be best presented in terms of correcting cer-



tain practices and of developing certain new resources. Too frequently publicity material is haphazard and is prepared without reference to preceding materials or without consideration of possible future developments. Occasionally the institution contradicts previous news releases because of the lack of an organized program. It must be remembered that many individuals and organizations in the community are not conversant with junior college matters until their interest is stimulated through carefully prepared information or until a situation arises which brings the institution to their attention.

If the general public misunderstands the purposes and program of the junior college we must assume most of the responsibility. We have detoured their interest from the broad highway of academic achievement and preparation for life's activities into the byways of college life incidentals. When we realize that the public is as interested in students as in stadiums, when we publish pictures of interested, busy people at work in the library or the laboratories, according them at least as much news emphasis as is given to the photograph of the winner in a beauty contest, or when stunt publicity is replaced by accounts of outstanding professional contributions of the faculty or superior student achievements, then may we expect to find more willing support and more sympathetic cooperation on the part of the public. Fortunately for us, the public desires more of the type of information which our best interests would direct us to furnish. Steward<sup>1</sup> has emphasized the necessity for more adequate educational information. "The general public actually gets little information on educational subjects, I mean on the true inwardness of education, its purposes, what it is all about, what is being done about it all, and why and by whom,—and I wish to go on record as saying that it is only by treating seriously some of the important things in higher education that we are ever going to convince a large public of its merit."

Our junior colleges have told the public rather completely of their extra-curriculum activities. These are essential to a

<sup>1</sup>Steward, T. E., "A Glance at Direct Publicity," *Proc. Amer. Ass'n of College News Bureaus*, June 1927, p. 10.



well-balanced institutional program and they make news. The junior colleges will benefit tremendously, however, by increasing the emphasis upon the true value of education. The public desires more of this type of information. A survey of public school publicity by Farley<sup>2</sup> indicates that patrons of the schools are interested, first of all, in such items as student progress and achievement, methods of instruction, courses of study, and value of education, and that of the entire thirteen items listed, extra-curriculum activities rank thirteenth. I trust that we may not interpret this to mean a lessening of our publicity upon these excellent activities, but rather a very substantial increase in such items as those indicated.

Among the effective public information agencies should be mentioned news stories that are prepared in cooperation with the press. A catalog<sup>3</sup> that is definite and honest in its statements, attractively printed, and without that excessive embellishment which sometimes marks the mediocre institution, could well be used more extensively as public relations material. The catalog may be supplemented by separate illustrated booklets with descriptive materials that give an interesting and truthful picture of the junior college.

Faculty members available for service as speakers, student groups representing such organizations as the glee club, orchestra, dramatic club, and others, will contribute to community service and to better appreciation of the local junior college. These are some of the immediate possibilities. They offer opportunity in every locality for important educational information, in many cases so complete and valuable as to form a phase of adult education. They will tell the public more thoroughly than could be done in any other way that the local junior college is efficient and economical, is honest in its accounting to those who maintain it, and is directed and administered by a highly professional group possessing the technical skill requisite for the service which the public has

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<sup>2</sup>Farley, B. M., "What to Tell the People About Their Schools," p. 38.

<sup>3</sup>See Eells, W. C., "The Junior College", pp. 584-595, discussion of characteristics of a good catalog, also a score card for junior college catalogs.

a right to expect. Well prepared publicity is an asset not only to the local institution but to the junior college movement as a whole.

## JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S LUNCHEON SESSION

**Tuesday, February 28.**

At 12:30 P. M. 248 were present at the Junior High-School Principals' luncheon in the Main Dining Room of the Leamington Hotel.

Dr. Edwin C. Broome, Superintendent of Schools of Philadelphia was the guest speaker.

Summary of an address before the Junior High-School Luncheon group, Tuesday, February 28. by Supt. E. C. Broome of the Philadelphia Public Schools. Topic: "Is the Junior High School Making Good?"

Superintendent Broome treated his subject under three sub-topics:

1. What is a Junior High School?
2. Where are Junior High Schools?
3. What do you mean by making good?

He defined the Junior High School as an organization of pre-adolescent boys and girls, between the ages of 12 and 15, gathered together for educational purposes. There are so many different combinations of grades in different places that it is impossible to state that the Junior High School includes certain grades or years, but regardless of the grades included and regardless of whether it is housed in a separate building or not, it can be called a junior high school if it has done certain things calculated to better adapt educational material and methods to that group of children.

The most common type of junior high school organization now includes grades 7, 8 and 9. If the enrollment is large

enough, it should be housed under a separate roof. If it has only four or five hundred and there is a senior high school no larger, economy would demand that they be housed under the same roof if possible. There are many advantages, however, in separate buildings for junior and senior schools.

In making good, the junior high schools of Philadelphia have accomplished the following things:

1. They have succeeded in developing a school personality and school loyalty without taking on the trappings of the senior high-schools, such as varsity teams, societies, slavery to marking systems and college entrance requirements.
2. They have adapted their programs to the impressionable, pre-adolescent age.
3. They have greatly decreased the educational mortality in Philadelphia.
4. They have enriched and increased the capacity of the children for social adaptation by developing initiative through the working out of clubs and other student activities.
5. They have brought about a wiser selection of subjects in the senior high schools.
6. They have brought the senior high schools back into the school system by bridging the gap that formerly existed between the high schools and the elementary schools. Curriculum committees, consisting of teachers from the elementary junior and senior high schools, frequently have junior high schools teachers as chairmen.

The total result is a feeling of unity throughout the school system. Furthermore the community is sold on it.

The group arrangement of the program was in vogue on Wednesday morning.

## GROUP NO. I.

In the Ballroom of Leamington Hotel at 9 A. M. on Wednesday, Milo H. Stuart, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, in charge of Secondary Education, of Indianapolis, Indiana presided.

E. H. Garinger, Principal of Central High-School, Charlotte, North Carolina, read his paper, *The North Carolina Program of the State Support of Education as Affecting High-Schools*.

### THE NORTH CAROLINA PROGRAM OF STATE SUPPORT AS AFFECTING HIGH SCHOOLS

E. H. GARINGER,  
Principal Central High-School,  
Charlotte, North Carolina.

**Background of the Movement for State Support.**—The constitution of the state of North Carolina provides that every child shall have as a minimum a six months' school term. Even in a period of rapidly rising prices some communities found the burden of supporting such a term almost unbearable. To equalize in a measure this burden the general assembly had from one biennium to another set up an ever increasing equalizing fund to aid the poor counties in providing themselves with schools comparable to those found in the more fortunate districts. From a fund of one hundred thousand dollars which was appropriated on a per capita basis by the legislature in 1899 the sum had grown to six and a half millions in 1929. In spite of such support from the state many counties found themselves unable to continue the six months' term. No one could describe the situation better than the state superintendent himself, who explains the reason for the innovation of 1931 as follows.

The General Assembly of 1931 faced a . . . difficult situation. The rising cost of education, coupled

with the inability of many counties to collect local taxes to meet their obligations, had placed some of the counties on the script basis. Many teachers had not been paid in full for their services in the previous year. Land taxes were too high. It was necessary for the General Assembly, under the conditions existing in 1931, to take such action as might be necessary to reduce, by an appreciable amount, the taxes levied on land and other property. In spite of a twenty-four year effort to equalize the county tax rates for the support of the six months' school term by means of an equalization fund, there was still a wide range of tax rates among the several counties due to shifting values and fluctuating school costs.

In the face of these difficulties, it became obviously necessary for the General Assembly to take vigorous action in order merely to keep the schools open. Out of this condition was born the principle of complete state support. The General Assembly was unwilling longer to leave the fate of the schools to the different localities of the state which varied so much in financial strength. The state as a whole, therefore, underwrote, on the basis of state standards of cost, the operation of the constitutional term in every district of the state . . . Of course, these measures were primarily for the relief of land taxes, but the General assembly was not unmindful of the needs of the schools.<sup>1</sup>

The present system of state support would seem to be an inevitable step in the development of a rapidly growing school system the population of which is dominantly rural but the wealth of which is urban. The number of children, too, in proportion to adults is unusually large. For example, 1.5 adults have the responsibility of providing one child of school age with educational opportunities, whereas the average number of adults per child of school age for the nation is 2.31. Fur-

<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1930-1932, Par. I, p. 6.

thermore, it is pointed out that the average per capita wealth in North Carolina is \$1737, whereas for the United States as a whole it is \$2977. The mounting costs of elementary and secondary education and the unequal spread of financial support made state action imperative. For instance, in 1907 which marks the beginning of the public high-school in North Carolina there were only 7,144 high-school students enrolled but in 1931 when the principle of state support was adopted there were 109,504 or an increase of more than 1400% although the population had increased only 50% for the same period. The general property tax was in the main the source of support for the greatly expanding school system. The state had gone far toward consolidation, carrying children by bus over more miles to school than any other state. Financial aid had been given by the state or else inequality of opportunity would have been more pronounced. Even so, the official publication of the state department of education, *Public School Facts* for May 1925, pointed out that the current expense per capita for the rural child was only 49% of that of the city child of the twenty-four largest cities. The same publication reported in June 1926 that the percentage spent on the rural child was 46% of that spent on the average child of the eight largest cities.

The State Educational Commission in a thorough and exhaustive report in 1927 indicated the inequality in the provision of educational opportunity and the inadequacy of the tax plan for its support. The fact was brought out that six times as much effort was required to furnish a given educational program in Wilkes County as in Forsyth. This commission pointed to the increase in taxes levied for schools and other purposes. This significant quotation from the report is appropriate:

If an examination is made of when the particular increases have incurred, it will be found that all governmental functions and services have made greatly increased demands for revenue. Taxes for schools have increased rapidly; taxes levied for purposes other than schools have increased even more rapidly. The biggest increase has naturally come in the reve-

nue requirements for State Highways. The magnificent network of highways linking up the county seats and principal towns in North Carolina, costing over \$100,000,000 requires, of course, a greatly increased revenue for its support. During the period 1920-1926 the total direct levy for schools increased 91.6 per cent; the total levies of subdivisions of the State for other purposes increased 115.7 per cent; total levies for purposes other than schools, both state and local, increased 198 per cent.<sup>2</sup>

Although the Educational Survey Commission showed that the huge indebtedness of the state was not due to schools which accounted for only 14% of the total, it was time to call a halt. The report of the Tax Commission for 1932 indicates the wisdom of such advice. Forty-eight per cent of the eighty-nine million dollar tax bill of 1931-32 was for debt services alone. Thirty-nine counties in the state had officially defaulted in the payment of principle or interest, or both. The number of cities in default is probably twice as large. Since the schools took thirty-eight per cent of the property tax dollar, they were expected to take a large share in the general policy of retrenchment.

The need for adjustment in spending is shown by many facts. For example, the average tax load per capita of total population amounted to \$12.87 in 1920. By 1929 it had risen to the peak of \$32.16. State and local taxes took on the average of 4.7% of the estimated income of the people of the state in 1920, but they absorbed 9.83% of such total income in 1930 as compared with a general average of 8.72% for the nation. For the past ten years the people in this state have been issuing bonds for permanent improvements in great amounts. The local debt is more than double that of the state debt. This situation would not be so unfavorable were it not for the fact that local debt is very unevenly distributed among the counties. The percentage of indebtedness to assessed valuation in the counties varies from 2.4% in one county to 43.3% in another. These figures are the more significant when we realize that the

<sup>2</sup>State Educational Commission, North Carolina, 1927. P. 286.



general property tax in 1930 still accounted for 63.1% of the tax burden and the gasoline and automobile license tax provided another 20.4%.

**The New School Law.**—When the General Assembly met in 1931 it was unavoidable that some recognition of the distressing situation should be made. Changes both in the total tax burden and in the manner of its distribution were imminent. North Carolina was a stronghold for local autonomy. The school system had developed as a patchwork of varying local initiative. More than a hundred cities had their own charters each providing for the type of school which that community wanted. Some cities had twelve grades, others eleven; a few had six months term, most others eight, or nine. The economy of centralization and uniformity has not been realized as yet. Local self government is a tradition in North Carolina older than the state itself. The governor does not have the veto power and until 1931 government was decentralized. The General Assembly of 1931 was determined to lift some of the tax burden from the people. Radical changes were made in the financing and administration of roads and schools. The school law embodied the principle of complete state support of the constitutional six months' term. In undertaking to pay the whole cost of the six months' term the state reserved the right to fix and maintain its own standards of cost. Funds might have been distributed on a per capita basis or a property valuation basis as had been the case with the equalizing fund, but previous experience had proved such a scheme unsatisfactory.

There had been since 1927 a State Board of Equalization set up for the purpose of distributing the equalizing fund. The personnel included the state superintendent of schools, a representative of the governor who is director of the budget bureau, the lieutenant governor, a secretary, and one member from each congressional district appointed by the governor. This organization was given greatly enlarged powers. Really it became the State Board of Education. The duties of this organization now became two-fold. First, there was the task of setting up the state minimum program for six months with

the funds allowed. Secondly, the responsibility of approving all supplementary expenditures for school operating costs was delegated to this body. Related questions incident to the solution of the first of these problems were to be solved by this Board. In passing it might be well to point out that in conformity to history the legislature did not pass general legislation giving broad general powers to the State Board of Equalization. The whole matter of salary schedule, of increments for experience and further training, and of teaching load was dealt with by special enactments. However, considerable progress was made for the State Board of Equalization was given authority to consolidate districts and to transfer teachers and students in the interest of economy and efficiency. A mandate to carefully scrutinize all items of expense insured uniformity and responsibility in financial accounting.

The North Carolina school law does provide **some** measure of local autonomy. The counties, with the approval of the board of commissioners and of the **State Board of Equalization**, may supplement each object and item of expenditure to bring the schools of the county up to **county** standards. It is in the administration of this provision that there has been most dissatisfaction. The counties and the charter districts during the first year of operation found their supplemental program somewhat restricted because of a percentage limitation placed upon their budgets by the State Board of Equalization. These counties and charter districts in the second year of operation met with an even greater limitation. In view of the fact that the purpose of the measure was tax reduction in the main it is not difficult to understand that such a board would take this attitude.

**Effects of State Support.**—What has been the effect of this program of state support? Dr. A. T. Allen, State Superintendent of Schools, in his biennial report to the legislature January 1933 surveys the situation thus:

It no longer matters whether a child lives on a sand dune or on top of a gold mine so far as his educational opportunities are concerned. His rights are the same in every case. Eventually he must have the

same opportunity at the hands of the State. The accident of residence or birth no longer affects him. A district line cannot exclude him. He can no longer be confronted with a tuition bill, and restricted in his educational opportunity because his neighbors are unprogressive.

The bills arising against the operation of the six months' term have been liquidated promptly and the teachers were paid on time.

The law has made possible the effectuation of many economies which could not have been accomplished under the old scheme of dual support without inflicting great hardship in many places. It goes a long way toward uniformity, and the weak places in the system found themselves in stronger position than they had ever been. This was not done at the sacrifice of efficiency on the part of the stronger counties. It has been a process of leveling up from the bottom.

**Reduction in Property Taxes.**—The effects of the enactment of the principle of state support is reflected in the saving to the property owners in the payment of their taxes on property. The reduction in the property tax for schools for 1931 over 1930 was 36%.<sup>3</sup> County wide levies for schools were reduced by 48% ; local district levies by 15% ; special charter district levies by 11%. The assumption of state responsibility for the current support of the six months school term affected only county school levies for current expense. These levies were reduced by more than eight million dollars or 61%. The next greatest reduction in property tax levies was for roads—a total of 21%. These reductions become highly significant in view of the fact that real estate comprised 74% of the total assessed value of all taxable property in the state in 1931 and bore 63% of the total burden of taxation.

Reductions have been made in three ways. Salaries of all state employees have been cut by 10% or more if not protected

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Tax Commission of N. C., 1932, p. 39, Table VII.

by the constitution or by statute. Reorganization of functions provide for a greater centralization of administration and effect many economies. In the third place a marked change in the distribution of the tax burden as to type of tax has taken place. Special taxes on corporations show an increase in yield of 33 per cent, business and occupational license taxes 39 per cent and the individual income tax 55 per cent. Approximately one-half the total cost of government for 1931-1932 was borne by property, one-fourth by automobile taxes, one-seventh by corporation taxes and the remaining approximately one-ninth by business license taxes, personal income tax, poll taxes, inheritance taxes and other miscellaneous taxes. It is obvious that property is gradually shifting much of its burden to other forms of wealth. At present there are no more than one or two states in the country in which property has a smaller percentage of the total tax burden than is the case in North Carolina. Thus the principle of state support has achieved in no small degree the objective the General Assembly had in view in its adoption.

#### **Opinions of School Officials as to Effects of State Support.**

—North Carolina has had almost two years of experience with her system of state support and control for the six months' school term. What attitude do the school officials themselves assume toward this innovation that is so contrary to the notion of local autonomy? The writer attempted to learn the judgment of representative principals and superintendents in both rural and urban districts on this question. They were requested to give their opinions as to the advantages and disadvantages of the plan. The replies have been generous and frank. In them one may find a fair estimate of the operation of the plan in this state. Excerpts from letters of men who serve in rural districts will be given first. One superintendent writes as follows:

The principle of state support for public schools is fundamentally sound. Since the interests of the state demand a minimum offering it is the duty of the state to provide that the burden of supplying the minimum be equalized.

A second county school superintendent divests himself thus:

Because of the tax reduction provision of the present law, it has been possible to operate all the rural high-schools in my county eight months. Without this aid at least three-fourths of our rural high-schools would not have been able to run but six months; it has been a life-saver to the rural high-schools.

Teachers have been paid in full for their work. This one thing has done much to help maintain the efficiency not only of the high-school but of the whole system.

Another great service the present law has rendered to high-schools has been the consolidation of small schools which should not have existed. This has worked both for efficiency and economy. By allowing students in non-local tax districts to attend schools in local tax districts without tuition, secondary education has been made available to many who would not have had such advantages.

This superintendent also stresses the fact that the state law has raised the level of business efficiency in school administration. He believes that the state department of Purchases and Contracts has affected some economies in buying.

A third superintendent who knows what it means to economize in the administration of his schools reports in this vein:

The policy of state support of schools has been the means of bringing about the major portion of the tax reduction to our property owners.

If we had not had state support many of our schools would not have been able to operate even for the six months term to say nothing of the extended term and yet our condition is better than the average in eastern North Carolina.

A few schools have voted on extended term tax and now are having an eight months term for less than they formerly paid for the six months.

Through state control we have learned to operate our plants more efficiently. We have been taught that fuel and other supplies can be made to go much farther than we once thought. The efficiency of janitorial service has been improved quite a bit.

A fourth county superintendent sees another advantage in the plan of state support. He thinks that the scholarship and training of teachers will be improved inasmuch as the state pays the bill. Like the others quoted he explains that many of the schools in his county were enabled to run for a longer term and with less tax burden on property owners. Mention is made of the further impetus given to consolidation through the plan of state support.

The unanimous opinion of the men entrusted with the administration of the rural schools seems to be that the principle of state support has been a boon to their schools. Without it many of them would not have been able to remain open.

One might infer that protection of the rural school has been obtained by taking funds from the urban districts. The replies from the city superintendents and principals may be more of an index of social attitudes and state consciousness than of the cost to the system they serve. At any rate, the replies indicate that the city superintendents and principals are pleased that all boys and girls may have an opportunity for an education. Among the replies are such statements as these:

I think our state system of schools has been the salvation of a large majority of the high-schools in this state.

I believe that the principle of state support for a minimum school term is fundamentally sound. It equalizes educational opportunity for a minimum school term, and it also provides opportunity for the local district to supplement the minimum term.

It truly distributes the school support more equally and will tend to lengthen the school term and generally increase the efficiency of the schools.

Assumption of support by the state and the state aid given for the extended term has maintained in every district in the state the constitutional six months term and has aided the maintenance of terms in the districts after the expiration of the six months.

The effect has been beneficial in that it has brought about consolidation of many rural high-schools into larger and more effective units.

I think our program of state support of public high-schools is very good as far as it goes. As state aid it is substantial but as state support it is inadequate.

I think under present conditions state support has meant more certain support as far as it went. I know that in many of our city high-schools as well as our rural schools we probably could not have maintained our term.

My belief is that state support has been more or less a Godsend during the past year. We have never been late for a single day in being able to pay our state salaries.

Most of the objections to the program of state support are not inherent in the principle itself. Perhaps they are largely due to the distressing economic situation. Superintendents and principals who have become accustomed to the idea of the state rewarding for effort are particularly alarmed because of the administrative policy of the State Board of Equalization to limit supplements. The following comments are indicative of the feeling aroused:

The percentage limitations mean that we are going to lose the strongest teachers in the high-schools.

The bill which sent this principle into operation has placed unlimited authority in the hands of a



Board composed of men none too sympathetic with education. This same Board of Equalization has exercised inexcusable tyranny over the school system. They have arbitrarily limited local supplements to the budgets to an unreasonable degree. The operation of the schools under this Board has tended to eliminate art, music, physical education, and industrial arts from the schools. Although the problem of teaching load is a professional one that has so far baffled the most outstanding experts in secondary education, yet the State Board of Equalization tells us very nonchalantly just what it ought to be.

The most damaging effect of our new program of state support is the power granted the State Board of Equalization to limit the amount of local tax funds which local districts may spend to advance standards above the state standards of cost. This practice should certainly not become a part of the permanent policy of state administration.

Another superintendent, a bit more optimistic, writes:

Lack of funds is the chief cause of the various annoying limitations which have been placed by the state upon the operation of the schools. I believe that with the return of prosperity we shall work out an excellent system of schools. Our present state support is a sort of skeleton support. We need more in the way of flesh and blood.

**Uniform Course of Study.**—One dissenter from the point of view of the state superintendent states that his experience with the plan so far is that it "levels down". He is firm in his conviction that the policy of denying local school authorities the right to spend such money as their communities can and want to spend on their high-schools is wrong. This superintendent fears that state support will probably mean a circumscribed course of study. Other executives share this same misgiving. The teaching load required by the State Board of Equalization is such that the instructional staff has had to be decreased in most instances. Such reduction was made by

eliminating all teachers considered as "extra" such as music, home economics, art, industrial arts, and physical education teachers. Although the State Board of Equalization does not discriminate against such teachers and although a different organization than that found in most schools could still retain them under the state plan, the fact is that many schools have decreased very greatly the number of such teachers.

**Restriction of Local Initiative.**—The answer to this problem of more adequate support is not entirely one of inability to support a better program. Many cities and counties have been refused the right to levy upon themselves a tax to provide the supplementary program they desire and are willing and able to pay for. The philosophy of the Board of Equalization seems very nearly to be complete uniformity. Effort rather than being rewarded is restricted. This is a new principle in educational administration. Is it the sign of conquest of a "new frontier"—the supplanting of all local autonomy by state bureaucracy? It assumes that a local community does not know what the needs and resources of that community are as the members of a State Board of Equalization know them. The same sort of philosophy would seem ridiculous if applied generally. A parallel illustration would be to allow no good roads built until the **whole** state could have them, no airways provided until **every** city could be supplied, no part of a city furnished with modern school buildings until the **whole** city could have similar buildings. Progress under this plan would be stifling to initiative and leadership. It is contrary to such expressions as the following taken from Chapman and Counts, *Principles of Education*.

Much freedom should also be allowed the local authorities, the cities, the counties, the towns, and the villages, in the control of education. At certain points, where the essence of the educative process is not at stake, standardization is desirable, but that bureaucracy which is the curse of many governments must be rigorously avoided.

Dr. Cubberley seems to share the same opinion, for he states in his *Public School Administration* that:

The common tendency toward an unnecessary state uniformity, which too often follows any centralization of authority and which is so stifling to community activity, should be carefully avoided by the State. To free the larger and more progressive communities from a uniformity perhaps necessary for small and more backward communities, ought to be an essential feature in a wise state educational policy.

The State Educational Commission in 1927 was of the same frame of mind as the following quotation reveals:

To say the least, complete state support of the public school system would not tend to stimulate initiative and local enthusiasm among the counties and districts for improving their own local systems and would discourage economical local administration.

**Schools in Politics.**—School men very generally have raised the question of whether or not a state system of support and control has not involved the schools in politics to an unwholesome degree. One principal surmises that,

In competition with other state agencies I seriously doubt if the schools will ever be able to receive their just dues; because, when all is said and done, the teachers and school administrators in this state are not a political power. Sheriffs and other county, city, and state officials control votes. At present I don't think the politicians care a great deal about what we think.

Dread for the future is expressed by many when they consider the fact that control is so far removed from the actual workings and processes of the thing. Example is given in the case of the federal government where waste and inefficiency are proverbial. A city school superintendent expresses his main objection to the present state program because of the very great danger of its developing into another political machine manipulated for the protection of certain cliques of state

officers. One may well wonder whether taking the schools out of hands of men trained for the work and placing them in the hands of politicians or their agents will be the best for the boys and girls. If the responsibility for the operation of the schools is removed from those who should be vitally concerned interest may be expected to wane. A rural school superintendent believes that when the "consuming fires of this financial crisis have subsided that the people in local communities will not be satisfied with state control of schools."

**What of the Future?**—From these critical reactions of school executives who have had first hand experience with the operation of the North Carolina school law one may obtain a fair estimate of its effects. Every school official agrees with the principle of state support of a minimum term. The philosophy of placing all of the resources of the state behind the job of educating all the children of the state is not challenged. A gradually increasing equalizing fund over the last thirty years is proof of a social point of view. On the other hand, the principle of state control is still an experiment. The exigencies of the hour have demanded curtailment of expenditures. The answer of the governor and the legislature has been state support and state control. As already indicated, when the consuming fires of this financial crisis have subsided we may have a return to local autonomy; or possibly the evolution will be in the direction of a reorganized State Board of Education made up of men especially interested in schools and with a philosophy of education that stimulates local initiative and effort. Directed by such leadership the result would be very different. Such encouragement would do much to overcome the feeling of urban school men that "there is a decided attempt to level down the wealthier communities in order to build up the poorer ones."

George M. Wiley, Assistant Commissioner, in charge of Secondary Education, State Education Department, Albany, New York, read Deputy Superintendent A. D. Simpson's paper entitled, *The New York Program of State Support of Education as Affecting High-Schools*.

## THE NEW YORK PROGRAM OF STATE SUPPORT OF EDUCATION AS AFFECTING HIGH-SCHOOLS

ALFRED D. SIMPSON,

Assistant Commissioner of Education for Finance  
New York State Education Department.

The constitution of the State of New York requires that "the legislature shall provide for the maintenance and support of a system of free common schools, wherein all the children of this state may be educated." The provisions enacted pursuant to this constitutional mandate are many and varied. While it is not important to review them here, it will serve our purpose to outline briefly the high-school situation which has developed from the law through the force of state leadership and local initiative.

While the state is responsible for the maintenance and support of schools the execution of this responsibility is a partnership affair. One of the members of the firm is the state itself, the other is the local school district which may assume any of several forms. While the state is the controlling partner it exercises this control with discretion, largely through general law and regulations. The local district is the operating partner in whom is vested a very large degree of initiative. Without allowing the thought to divert us from the subject at hand we may pause to remark that this partnership idea which has found common acceptance countrywide may be responsible for much of the strength as well as much of the weakness in our present-day educational organization. It may be added further that out of the partnership pattern grows a series of vexing problems relating to administrative units in education, problems common to all states and of paramount importance particularly for the secondary education of this era.

Of some 9,108 local school districts in New York in 1931, high schools were maintained in 790. With the exception of the central high-school district organized exclusively for high-school purposes and of which there are but four in the state,

each of these 790 districts maintains both elementary and high schools. Among these are 59 city school districts, 90 villages under superintendents, most of the 138 central rural school districts and the remainder union free school districts maintaining "academic" or high-school departments.

In 1931 there were 962 public high schools of which 254 were either junior high schools or schools of less than the standard grade, leaving 708 of the regular four year or senior high schools.

New York high schools vary greatly in size from very small schools to those of exceedingly large enrolments. In approximately one-half of the high schools the enrolment is less than 100 pupils. Nevertheless the number of very small high schools is steadily decreasing, a process which should continue with the development of the central rural school district. Enrolments in public day high schools amounted to 472,000 in 1931 and represented an increase of 160% since 1920. Approximately 1-10 of the high school youth in the United States are now enrolled in New York institutions of secondary education.

With this somewhat sketchy picture of the New York high-school situation before us we may now proceed to a consideration of the program adopted for its support. While the previously mentioned partnership idea as applied to the support of schools dates back into the early days of New York public education it was as late as 1920 that the state itself came to contribute extensively to the support of schools. The year 1925, however, probably marks the most significant development in the state's support of schools—significant because of a principle adopted. Many forces converged at that time to bring about a new day in the state support of education. The story of the play of forces in the 1920 decade is immensely intriguing and the temptation to such a narrative is resisted only because of the limitation of time.

The principle governing the state's support of education as embodied in the Cole-Rice act of 1925 and in subsequent legislation finds expression in the term "Equalization of Edu-

ational Opportunity." This principal, practically interpreted, has governed recent legislation in New York to the extent that it may now be said that our state support laws have four fundamental intentions: (1) to guarantee to all children a high degree of equality of educational opportunity, (2) to promote the equalization of the tax burden in the support of schools, (3) to make possible the maintenance of a reasonably high level of educational offering without an inordinate burden on real estate, the source of most local tax revenue and (4) to accomplish the first three purposes without upsetting the "partnership" idea as between state and local units, or in other words, while at the same time maintaining the traditional balance between state and local administrative jurisdiction.

To promote all of these intentions effectively through the mechanics of a plan for the apportionment of state school support has not been a simple matter. How effectively our mechanical system supports the principles just indicated will be judged by you as I proceed to outline the major provisions of the New York apportionment law.

While I shall restrict myself to the provisions for secondary education as far as possible it must be remembered that the law purposes to provide a reasonably well integrated support of education and that therefore it is impossible to consider the support of high schools entirely apart from the support of elementary schools.

At the outset it must be noted that in its reorganization of state support New York approached the problem neither from the standpoint of secondary nor elementary education. What was sought was a plan of support which considered the whole realm of public education as measured by the most general practices of the school districts. The state is interested in the support of both elementary and secondary education. No attack on the state aid problem should be exclusively centered either upon the one or the other. True adequate weightings should be given to the cost of education on both levels, but the final program should be one of proper equation



and integration. This is accomplished in New York by giving to high schools a weighting of 1.56 over elementary schools while at the same time embracing both high and elementary schools within a single comprehensive equalization program.<sup>1</sup>

With this consideration as a background it is important now to describe briefly first the equalization plan and thereafter the several auxiliary forms of support in operation in New York.

Among the several types of state aid provided in the law the following relate to secondary-school support: (1) the equalization quota (2) the non-resident tuition quota (3) the transportation quota and (4) the building quota. The first or equalization quota is the largest and most important, amounting to over 92% of all state support.

**Equalization.**—The following provisions of the law relate to this phase of state high-school support. (1) The sum of \$1900 is allowed for each high and part-time or continuation school teacher, as defined below—(2) The number of such teachers *for the purposes of apportionment* only are determined according to the following formula which is expressed in the law:

(a) In a district having a high school average daily attendance of 35 or more pupils three teachers are counted for the first 35 such pupils and one teacher for each additional 22 pupils. If the high school average daily attendance is less than 35 pupils, two teachers are counted for the first 20 pupils and one teacher for each additional 15 pupils. If the average daily attendance is less than 20 pupils the Commissioner of Education may use the actual number of high school teachers employed not to exceed two. (3) After determining the amount allowed by the previous provisions, namely by multiplying \$1900 by the computed number of high school teacher units, and adding thereto an amount determined by a similar process for elementary schools, there is deducted from

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<sup>1</sup>Ratio of elementary to high-school classroom units equals 27-22, or 1.23. Ratio of teacher unit allowance in high to that in elementary schools equals 1900-1500, or 1.27.

the sum so obtained an amount equivalent to sixty cents on each \$1000 of actual valuation of taxable property within the given district. The purpose of deducting this 6-10 mills is to provide for an equalized local contribution. The balance remaining after such deduction is paid to the given school district as a state contribution to the support of schools. The amount so apportioned to each district, however, cannot exceed the difference between the total expenditure for school purposes therein and the amount of a five mill tax on the actual value of taxable property in such district. It is provided nevertheless, that no district shall receive less than \$425 for each qualified teacher employed.

In substance, therefore, and free of minor provisions and limitations, it will be seen that this phase of state support assures any district maintaining an approved high school an amount equal to \$1900 multiplied by approximately each 22 pupils in average daily attendance less a computed local contribution of 6-10 of a mill on the actual or equalized valuation of taxable property.

**Non-Resident Tuition.**—In addition to the above provisions the New York State support plan includes a grant of \$50 per year for each non-resident high school pupil from districts not maintaining high schools. This grant is paid to the district receiving the pupil and such a district is prohibited from making a charge for non-resident tuition unless such a charge be considered justifiable by the Commissioner of Education under conditions set forth in law. In this connection it should be noted also that to districts receiving non-residents also accrues the state aid under the equalization quota due to the average attendance of such non-residents, making a total grant of about \$136 for each non-resident pupil.

**Transportation.**—A further type of state support for secondary education in New York is found in the provision for the transportation of pupils. Each district which does not maintain a high school is, in the language of the law, required to "provide transportation when necessary for its pupils who have completed the work of the eighth grade and

are receiving—instruction in another district.” The amount of this quota is  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the sum paid for transportation, subject to the approval of the Commissioner of Education. This type of transportation is referred to in common parlance as “academic” or “outside” transportation. The cost to the state therefor in 1932-33 was approximately \$500,000.

In addition to this quota the law makes provision for a similar grant on account of the cost of transporting pupils to schools within consolidated, central rural and union free school districts. This transportation aid, however, is not exclusively related to high-school facilities. The cost of this form of aid for 1932-33 was approximately \$800,000.

It will thus be seen that the program of state support includes a very definite provision for the transportation factor. The total cost to the state is now over \$1,300,000, an expense wholly justified outside the present equalization quota. In this connection it should be stated that there is no scientific virtue in a grant of  $\frac{1}{2}$  the cost of transportation. In fact in any program of state aid which deals equitably with the rural school problem it seems defensible that the support of the entire justifiable cost of transportation be equalized through the state support system. The partial reimbursement factor in the program of transportation aid, as found in several states, has a virtue as a weapon with which to regulate the total cost of the service.

**Buildings.**—Another form of state support which has proven of great importance in New York for both secondary and elementary education is the so-called building quota. This quota is payable only to central rural school districts reference to which will be made later. This form of aid amounts to  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the sum actually expended for the erection, enlargement or remodeling of a school building in a central district. It is paid only in case the Commissioner of Education approves the particular building project and the plans and specifications therefor in advance of local expenditure. If the building project be financed through the sale of bonds or other certificates of indebtedness the quota of state aid for any

#### DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

given year is based upon the principal and interest payments by the district for such year. This form of state support, like transportation, is supplemental to equalization and of vast significance for both secondary and elementary education in the rural field. In effect, it recognizes not only the inevitable plant requirements in the reorganization of rural education to meet modern conditions but also the responsibility of the state as a whole in helping to finance such requirements which were necessitated by the operation of social and economic factors over which the local district had little, if any, control.

As already indicated the New York system of state support, as particularly affecting high schools, includes equalization, non-resident tuition, transportation and building apportionments. The major portion of state support (92%) is distributed under the equalization formula. Equalization applies alike to all districts. The other forms of high school aid apply particularly to the support of rural educational opportunity.

**Conditions and Miscellaneous Provisions.**—Before proceeding to other aspects of state high school support several significant points should be briefly mentioned. Among these are the methods of certification and payment. State support is given in the nature of a reimbursement. All apportionments are computed on the basis of certified reports and claims made to the state education department. Reports for a given school year are received on or after July first. With the exception of non-resident tuition which is paid in the autumn, one-half of the moneys apportioned are payable on or before January 15 and one-half on or before March 15. The state has not chosen to earmark its general support for particular expenditure purposes other than to specify that it shall be applied to the payment of teachers salaries and the cost of school maintenance. None of the state apportionments thus far takes cognizance of the junior high school. In local school systems where the junior high school exists a pupil in the grades 7 or 8 is counted as an elementary pupil and one in grade 9 as a high school pupil. In determining the actual valuation of taxable property for purposes of apportionment, previously referred to, assessed to full value ratios are employed as fur-

nished by the state department of taxation and finance. In determining the number of teachers for apportionment purposes the Commissioner of Education may in his discretion use the actual number of teachers employed if this number is less than that determined by computation through formula application. Conditions under which districts are entitled to apportionments require the observance of the laws governing teachers salaries, including salary schedules and minimum salary provisions, the certification of teachers, and the legally established school term. Apportionments on account of high schools are made only to those schools approved by the state education department.

**Central Rural School Districts.**—Reference has already been made to the central rural school district. Since the central district movement is so closely related to the problem of providing high-school education in the rural areas certain phases of the state support program for these units will bear amplification. The central district law passed in 1914 proved ineffective in bringing about centralization until after 1925 when it was amended to provide for a more liberal state support. In 1926 there were six central districts, while to-day there are nearly one hundred forty. In this growth a more liberal state aid exclusive of that granted has undoubtedly played a large part. Without involving this discussion with a description of the somewhat intricate phases of the state support law for central districts, it will suffice to say that the aid to central districts is much more liberal than that granted to other districts under equalization. A recent study of state support in central districts made by the Finance Division of the State Education Department indicates that on the average the computed amount allowed per teacher unit in central districts is about \$1000 greater per teacher unit than the similar equalization law element which applies in all other districts. In effect, therefore, the state is in part subsidizing the development of the type of local unit for which at present it chooses to make provision as a desirable substitute for a form of rural district organization not suited to present conditions.

**Financing of State Support.**—At this point it will be of interest to consider the method of financing the state support program. In order to conserve time I shall indicate with brief explanations the important steps in the process.

It has been shown that the laws of the state specify the several forms of state support to which local districts are entitled and indicate how these apportionments shall be computed. In one sense these laws represent the state's commitments to the school districts. The sum total of computations of the apportionments under the law represent the amount of money involved.

The apportionment law in New York, however, does not set up a state support fund in terms of dollars as in many states. In other words we start with laws providing specific methods for determining the amount of state support due school districts and not with the establishment of a fixed total fund to be distributed. In New York the total amount necessary is normally flexible and determined by apportionment computations which in turn depend upon school district report data, such as average daily attendance, assessed valuations and the like. Accordingly it becomes necessary for the Education Department annually to estimate the amount of money required for state support under the law and include the same in the departmental budget request placed before the Governor. The end result of this procedure is an annual appropriation made by the legislature to meet the requirements of state school support. No payments may be made from the state treasurer in excess of appropriations.

The money to meet the appropriations for the state support of schools accrues to the state treasury in the same general manner as does the money for meeting any other state governmental obligation. The chief source of state revenue, of course is taxation.

In this connection it will be of interest to note the principal sources of state tax revenue.

The following summary of revenue receipts from various sources and in the proportion that each source bears to the



total for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1931, has been taken from the Annual Report of the State Comptroller, Part I, page XII:

Sources of Revenue	Amount	Per Cent of total
Corporation tax .....	\$ 70,437,601.13	26.54
Transfer (Inheritance) tax .....	52,587,631.94	19.81
Motor Vehicle tax .....	31,207,394.37	11.76
Refunds and reimbursements .....	*27,728,155.94	10.44
Motor fuel tax .....	22,864,060.00	8.61
Stock transfer tax .....	20,698,207.35	7.80
Personal income tax .....	19,747,427.13	7.44
Revenue of general departments .....	6,968,839.93	2.63
Sundry general revenues .....	3,102,762.30	1.17
Mortgage tax .....	3,054,587.15	1.15
General property tax .....	2,699,434.83	1.02
Insurance premium tax .....	2,209,391.98	.83
Organization of corporations .....	1,685,129.19	.63
Sundry special taxes .....	459,153.05	.17
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$265,449,776.29	100.00

In considering these revenue sources two points are significant. In the first place it is to be noted that New York does not commonly " earmark " state taxes for particular purposes. There is no state tax in any way specially designated for school support. It would be impossible to point out a purely state school tax. Secondly, it is important to note that the state levies no state general property tax for state governmental purposes. While the above table shows a very small proportion of revenue derived from the general property tax the proceeds thereof go to the support of armories and court stenographic services. In no sense is the state support of schools dependent upon a state general property tax.

The method of financing state support, considered along with the method of distribution or apportionment, is clearly seen to be derived from a fundamental and increasingly rec-

\*This amount is exceptional and indicates \$24,367,477.96 refund from the Port of New York Authority.



ognized theory which in turn emanates from the state's position of ultimate responsibility for education. The resources of the state, as a whole are drawn upon wherever they may exist and distributed throughout the state to meet an educational need wherever and in whatever proportion such need exists. Since the general property tax is the chief local source of school support, it is of further significance to the principal of equalization that the state derives the funds for its own support from indirect sources or those other than general property.

**The Amount of State Support.**—The extensiveness of the financial program of the state for the support of schools may be shown in several ways. The total amount distributed by the state for the support of schools in 1931-32 was approximately 104 million dollars. The total amount available through appropriations for the current year is approximately the same, although in this connection it should be stated that the amount available for 1932-33 is approximately 5 million less than the amount called for under the section of the law relating to state support. This amount represents, first, a deficiency of appropriations in relation to the requirements of the statute, due to retrenchment pressure, and second, the year's increase in the amount called for under the law,—an increase brought about largely by the growth in school attendance and the decrease in local property valuations.

Another measure of the extensiveness of state support may be found in its relation to the total cost of schools. For the year ending June 30, 1931, the total cost of public schools, including current expenses, debt service and that part of capital outlay currently financed, was about 318½ million dollars. For the same year state aid receipts by local school districts amounted to about 98½ millions or 31%. On the average, therefore, the state support met approximately 31% of the total cost of public schools. In this connection it should be noted, however, that due to the principle of equalization this percentage would vary greatly among districts. The percentage of state contributions would naturally tend to be higher in poor districts and lower in wealthy districts.

The average percentage in cities was 27.8%, in villages over 4500, 29% and in all other districts excluding cities and villages, that is, the rural districts generally speaking, 46%.

Still another measure of the extensiveness of state support is to be found in its relation to total state governmental expenditures. Of a total of 305 million dollars representing the general fund expenditure of the state government for 1930-31 approximately 36% was for all state educational purposes and approximately 32% for the item of state support of local schools.

**Conclusion.**—The purpose of this paper was to describe the New York program of state support of education as affecting high-schools. In the course of my treatment of the subject I have considered something of: (1) the fundamental position of the state, (2) the nature of the relationship between state and local units, (3) the scope and magnitude of the high-school phase of the state school system, (4) the basic principle governing and four purposes or intentions which seem to have influenced the development of the present program, (5) the four most important forms of state support affecting high-schools, namely, equalization, non-resident tuition, transportation and building quotas, (6) important conditions and other provisions relating to apportionment of state support, (7) the special significance of the support to central rural school districts, (8) the method by which the state finances its support program including the tax system and, finally, (9) measures of the extensiveness of state support.

It may be apparent to you that except for my description of the forms of support or the kinds of state aid including the description of the method of apportionment I have made no particular reference to the state support system "as affecting high-schools". This is true and due to the very nature of the program. There is nothing in particular to describe as affecting high-schools beyond the provisions already noted for the adequate weighting of the high-school in the teacher unit formula and in the size of the minimum program and beyond the provisions described for the few special quotas. One of

the important features of the system has already been stated as its integrating effect upon the whole school system. With few exceptions special features and elements of the school program are neither influenced nor subsidized. And yet it will be admitted that a minimum program of \$1900 per high-school unit (approximately 22 pupils) constitutes a relatively satisfactory program of state participation in secondary-school support.

The consideration of advance problems in state support is not within the province of this paper. For those who may be interested in a treatment of this phase of the subject as well as the partial evaluation of the present program of state support in New York I would refer you to a publication entitled "State Support for Public Schools in New York as Related to Tax Support and Educational Expansion", by Mort, Simpson, Lawler and Essex, published in 1931 or Memorandum No. 2 of the Report of the New York State Commission for the Revision of the Tax Laws.

In closing I wish to stress one point: important as sound state support may be in any period for the financing of an adequate school program and for the equalization of educational opportunity, it is an absolute essential in an era of economic distress such as the present. The normal inequities to children caused by major dependence upon local financing are magnified many fold in the present period. The disastrous breakdown of the general property tax is becoming increasingly apparent and its only available relief is in greater reliance upon statewide tax resources thru equitable and scientific distributions. The state with its broader potential tax base is none too large a unit for bearing the brunt of school support. It is the only way open at present to assure equity to children and equity to tax payers. Why let tradition and inertia stagnate the institution of childhood? Why toy with the situation when the education of America's boys and girls is at stake?

## GROUP NO. 2

H. C. Lyseth, State Supervisor of Secondary Education of Augusta, Maine, presided in the Tenth Street Lobby.

R. V. Morgan, Director of Music of the Public Schools of Cleveland, Ohio, read his paper, *Analyzing Objectives in Music Education*.

## ANALYZING OBJECTIVES IN MUSIC EDUCATION

RUSSELL V. MORGAN,

Director of Music, Cleveland Public Schools  
and Associate Professor of Music, School of Education,  
Western Reserve University.

Until recently small provision was made for training pupils of artistic inclination. The community sensed its responsibility in the fields of literary and scientific education, but seemed indifferent to the development of students with artistic bent. "The sciences give us utility but the arts give us beauty" (Croce-Aesthetic). And now attention is beginning to focus upon all branches of the fine arts as offering as rich and varied values as the two other fields, for we cannot but agree with Dewey that "education must be re-conceived, not as merely a preparation for maturity \* \* \* \* but as a continuous growth of the mind and a continuous illumination of life. In a sense, the schools can give us only the instrumentalities of mental growth; the rest depends upon our absorption and interpretation of experience".

Our present day music program is directed toward an enrichment of experience that will develop the power to create beautiful imagery with necessary but secondary training in means of expressing this imagery.

In the early years of the American Republic, the singing school was an important activity in adult community life. The name was derived from the fact that, in addition to choral singing, there was a definite plan for the teaching of sight

reading or "singing by note". The first music teacher to be appointed in the public schools was Dr. Lowell Mason, who began his work in the common schools of Boston one hundred years ago. Some years later, Julius Eichberg was appointed by the school committee of the same city with the assignment of chorus music in the high-schools. The chief precedent in music education being the singing school, the high-schools based their courses on that type of instruction. The technical training in note reading was stressed increasingly for the purpose of justifying music as a study involving mental training. This resulted in a type of choral training devoted to dry technical drill supplemented by mechanical and uninteresting singing. Music rightly taught does contribute to intellectual growth though its chief value in the educational program is not here but in its power to develop and satisfy emotional and aesthetic needs.

Toward the close of the past century an increasing number of teachers became conscious of the weakness inherent in the commonly accepted objectives in the study of music and through teaching and writing became a strong influence for improvement. In general, however, high-school music was concerned very little with the release of highly dynamic artistic feeling.

A generation ago a new idea in musical instruction swept the country. It was called music "appreciation" and was widely hailed as the solution of the problem of teaching music to the great majority of children. Evidently many people did not see the humor of a situation in which the usual method of teaching a great art was to be paralleled by an attempt to create enjoyment of that art. High-school students had apparently been in contact with a subject which they neither understood nor enjoyed. The reception of this new plan proved that school administrators were dissatisfied with previous results and expected to attain more desirable outcomes through the new way of studying music. This new instruction emphasized reaction to musical beauty and originally had for its aim maximum enjoyment of music. However, music appreciation did not succeed in providing a complete program of music for high-

school students. It emphasized knowledge about music and not music itself. The simple contact with beauty in music was obscured by discussion of only extrinsic worth.

And yet here occurred the first important change in the philosophy of music education, the elevation of musical beauty as the objective of prime importance.

Until the opening of the twentieth century vocal music was the only important high-school music activity, although many schools possessed small instrumental ensembles that were largely extra-curriculum and of slight musical value. At this time a few high-schools developed large symphonic orchestras and pointed the way to a program of instrumental instruction that has had tremendous growth in the past few years. Of even more importance than the growth of instrumental music was the recognition of the necessity to provide opportunity for the differentiation of musical talent. The musical ability of an individual is rarely equal in both vocal and instrumental fields. A highly superior instrumental talent may be decidedly unsuccessful in vocal expression.

With these two important changes in the philosophy of music education, the aim toward musical beauty and provision for differentiation in musical talent, the development of our present music curriculum was rapid. The purpose of this discussion is to study the present day objectives of school music.

In the last few years music has attained a place in the educational scheme because it contributes heavily to the development of emotional, aesthetic, and social objectives. The schools have provided for the literary and scientific talents and now feel impelled to offer opportunity for those primarily endowed with artistic talent.

Music contributes to the general objectives of education; to health, to vocational training but more especially to social relationships and proper use of leisure time. But this discussion is concerned with the objectives in the study of music itself.

The objective usually stated in courses of study is this: "To create a love for good music". This is a true statement but

so general as to be almost useless in planning procedures and courses of study. There are specific objectives that can be clearly stated and whose attainment will result in the accomplishment of the one first stated.

These specific objectives may be listed as follows:

1. Emotional expression.
2. Satisfaction in skills.
3. Development of musical intelligence.
4. Creative power.
5. A background of musical history and vocal and instrumental literature.
6. Aesthetic appreciation.
7. Social relationships.

The first five of these are quite definitely a part of classroom learning and shall be discussed from that angle. The last two will be taken up later.

Emotion is the power plant of music and must be present in performance or the performer and listener alike will be left cold and unresponsive. Emotion is a strong factor for good or evil in the life of each individual and music provides both a safe and satisfying avenue for such expression.

After leaving childhood, it seems difficult to give free expression to feeling and yet the power of music can never be felt otherwise. This power of deep feeling is present more or less in everyone but is frequently repressed to the point of frustration so far as expression is concerned.

Schopenhauer writes, "Art alleviates the ills of life by showing us the eternal and universal behind the transitory and the individual. This power of the arts to elevate us above the strife of wills is possessed above all by music. It differs too from the other arts because it affects our feelings directly and not through the medium of ideas; it speaks to something subtler than the intellect."

Skills are essential as a means of expressing emotion. Ability to present clearly the message of music naturally



brings satisfaction but while skills contribute to appreciation through increasing ability to discriminate they must primarily remain a means to a desired end rather than as ends in themselves.

Keen mental reaction to structural factors in music is termed musical intelligence. Some individuals quickly grasp and use tone relationships, rhythmic patterns, harmonic structure and form while others find difficulty in comprehending these factors. It is necessary to point out the difference between general intelligence which concerns knowledge about the intellectual or structural elements of music and musical intelligence which constitutes the power to recognize and use these elements. In any case training will improve whatever natural capacity is present.

Creative power is used in two senses: first, creation of a living musical expression from a cold and mechanical transcription of a composer's inspiration, and second, the creation of a work of beauty for the first time. This creative power is much more widespread than is usually believed and education can take pride in being responsible for any part it may have in its development. Bertrand Russell has stated that "it is quite conceivable, for example, that education could mould opinion to admire art more than wealth, as in the days of the Renaissance, and could guide itself by the resolution to promote all that is creative, and so to diminish the impulses and desires that center around possession". Musical notation is similar to shorthand notes and it becomes the privilege of the performer to breathe life and beauty into the composition subject only to two limitations: first, that of the composer's genius, and, second, that of the performer's musical power.

The fifth point in our list of objectives is decidedly weak in school music. There is little understanding of the real values in musical history and a decided distortion in acquaintance with musical literature. What was the purpose of composers of classical period? Surely something entirely different from that of the musicians of the romantic period. The composer of the classical period was concerned with an expression of pure beauty of tone and balance of form. Clean and crystal

clear performance with dynamics used for contrast of light and shade in a purely impersonal expression of graceful beauty. On the other hand, music of the romantic period is expressing as strongly as possible the whole range of human emotion and is decidedly an outpouring of the personal feelings of the human soul. Dynamics heighten the strength of feeling. Performance of works from these two schools must form a decided contrast.

History interprets the reason for this contrast. The classic period came at the time of the royal courts with all the polish and formal artificiality incident to them. The causes of the French and American revolutions are tied up in the development of music of the romantic period.

It seems logical to insist that pupils come into contact with representative musical literature of all periods and be led to sense the characteristics expressed by each. This term musical literature refers to music itself and not to books and articles about the art. Unless careful thought is given to organization of the musical content of our courses of study, students will pass through our classes with distorted and incomplete contacts with the great music of the world. Schools must be expected to provide a musical legacy that contains a few great art works from each period of creative effort. More than that, every effort must be made to cause the musical beauty of the compositions to grow into the very soul of the student to the extent that these masterpieces of music become a part of his being.

Quite definite procedures are available for accomplishment of the five specific objectives just discussed. But now comes the difficult problem of securing growth in aesthetic appreciation. "The essence of aesthetic activity," states Croce, "\* \* \* lies in a form of intuition that involves no mystic insight, but perfect sight, complete perception, and adequate imagination. The miracle of art lies not in externalization but in the conception of the idea, externalization is a matter of mechanical technique and manual skill". He further states: "When we have vividly and clearly conceived a musical theme, expression is born and is complete, nothing more is needed.

If, then, we open our mouth and sing \* \* \* what we do is to sing aloud what we have already sung within. If our hands strike the keyboard of the pianoforte, such actions are willed and what we are then doing is executing in great movements what we have already executed briefly and rapidly within".

From this, it is evident that aesthetic appreciation cannot be taught by direct approach but will result in proportion to the capacity of the individual to react to the stimulation of musical beauty provided of course that the musical instruction has been well done.

Various social relationships will result from a program of musical instruction rightly taught. The members of a musical organization quickly sense the fact that each must contribute his share to gain an effective result. They learn how to work together for the common good. Strong friendships arise from common interests. Their music is a powerful agent in unifying the spirit of the school. They attract the attention and interest of the community (true even of a large city where the school is center of a sub-community). Small groups form for the purpose of singing and playing in the homes of the various numbers. Above all, there is carried away a comprehension and love of good music that makes them members of an ever increasing group united in their enjoyment of the beauty now open to them in one of the fine arts.

It will be well to keep in mind the various pathways through which we react to music. They number four and all serve in gaining a complete experience with this art. The most elemental is the physical response to the rhythm of music. Though it is the first reaction noted it continues to hold a highly important place in all musical experience. Almost anyone will react muscularly to the playing of a military band and yet it is this same reaction that in a thoroughly trained condition is essential in following the complex rhythmical patterns of a symphony. The action of the muscles is basic in the full realization of rhythm.

The sensuous enjoyment of music plays its part. A beautiful tone will please and it is through this sense that tone quality and tonal coloring become important.

The construction of music becomes comprehensible as the intellectual power of retaining perception of form in musical structure grows. The form of music in which is expressed the factors of unity and contrast presents a peculiar problem to the listener for it is as though present in a dark room with a pinpoint of light tracing the outline of a picture with the necessity of retaining in the memory the path followed by this point of light if the complete picture is to be realized. In addition, the intellectual approach calls for mastery of notation and all the varied elements termed music theory.

Emotion or feeling reaction has been discussed but again it is valuable to point out the fact that here centers the warmth and life of the art.

The balance of activity of these four factors varies in individuals. To one, emotion is the only source of enjoyment, to another, physical reaction to rhythm. It is obvious that the highest form of musical pleasure comes from the combination of all four of these sources of musical stimulation.

A few words about three essentials in properly expressing a musical composition. First, skill in that the presentation be clearly and adequately given. Development of skill is necessary in our study of music, not for the sake of technic but in order that the picture be clear and true. Second, a grasp of all the intellectual factors in that there be proper control and intelligent presentation of form, balance, et cetera; and third, the presence of power to both feel and express emotion in a musical manner.

The chief purpose, then, in music education will be the development of a strong and vital emotional power expressed through adequate skill and controlled by musical intelligence, this to be used in creating a living presence of the music of the masters of all ages and in understanding the part it plays in the history of man.

In presenting her material, Miss Indianola Willcutts, Supervisor of Art of Duluth, Minnesota, used the lantern and a wealth of illustrative material which the title of her paper,

*Analyzing Art Objectives in the High-School*, gives no adequate notion.

## ANALYZING ART OBJECTIVES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

INDIANOLA WILL CUTS,  
Supervisor of Art Education,  
Public Schools, Duluth, Minnesota

About three years ago the following helpful clipping appeared in *Everyday Art*, "The large centers of population tend to influence, if, indeed, they do not dominate what is done in art education in the smaller places roundabout. Likewise, what is being done in this subject in the most populous city of the nation tends to determine the trend of art education throughout the country. For this reason, the new approach to art education adopted by the Board of Education of the city of New York on the recommendation of the art department there, is of much interest. We are told that instead of the old method of attempting to teach untalented pupils to draw, the new compulsory two-year course will strive to inculcate good taste and the rudiments of art appreciation. The children are to study art appreciation in the community, the home, the office, the theater, in dress, architecture, painting, and sculpture. The pupils will be taught with the view to developing their powers of discrimination and establishing familiarity with the finest in artistic expression."

Forrest Grant, Director of Art in the New York City secondary-schools, says: "The change is one of approach. No public school system has ever attempted to make artists out of all of its students, but, as far as I know, all systems have followed the 'art school method' of attempting to bring children to art appreciation by first teaching them to draw.

"This method is an indirect one, and in the case of untalented children is slow and frequently will not work at all.

"We have a world full of artists but a relatively small demand for their work because so few have been trained to appreciate it. Every one is born with an ability to appreciate

art, but creative artists starve in garrets because this ability has been allowed to lie dormant and undeveloped in the great mass of the people.

"Our new course is designed to create an instant emotional reaction to art qualities in all students, the talented and the untalented. We can create a demand for more and finer art by thousands of people and thus provide the consumers of art itself, as well as the creators of art objects.

"We are going to teach our young people how to live as distinguished from how to make a living. We think we can engender a love for beauty, develop good taste and train for leisure. We can do these things in addition to encouraging talent and gratifying the desire to create."

This clipping made us feel then that some one had published an art course such as we had longed for. A review of the course set our minds at rest and we went about our art work with renewed energy and joy, for the aims set forth by Forrest Grant were the very aims for which we stood. And for lack of ability to express in the helpful manner in which Mr. Grant has expressed them we have copied them word for word and used them. Our problems, of necessity, differ from those of New York City but our aims remain the same. And because these aims exactly express what we have in our small way been doing and are trying to do, I shall use them in analyzing art objectives in the high-school. When these aims have been reviewed, a hasty explanation of the exhibit, maybe, will help to show you what results may be expected in a system where these aims have been the foundation for the art work.

**Art Appreciation.**—An art course for the secondary-schools of New York City by Forrest Grant, Director of Art, has on the title page this quotation from C. Hanford Henderson, "True art is the overflow of a radiant spirit, and the growth of art in any community depends not only on the number of workers, but also on the number of appreciative on-lookers, creators of an atmosphere favorable to the art spirit."

Here we have so well expressed just what we are trying to do in our art classes from kindergarten to senior high-



school, to try to search out the number of workers, but also trying to help our children to become appreciative on-lookers. And I do believe we are, in a way, succeeding.

Art, then, in our public schools best resolves itself into art appreciation. For the best expression of the aims of such a course let us consider that of New York City.

In the Introduction to the Art Appreciation Courses of the New York City Secondary-Schools, by Harold G. Campbell, Associate Superintendent, we find the following: "It is unquestionably true that art has played a vital part in the life of mankind throughout the ages. As the truth of this statement is realized, it is apparent that American educators, owing to their greater interest and intensive training in the classics, the sciences, or in technical studies, have been unusually slow in giving any consideration to art as one of the most important fundamental branches of educational work. They have, it is true, taken for granted that there are to be found in each community some favored boys and girls who desire to study drawing and designing either as a delightful diversion or with the idea of making art a life work. In providing, for these talented few, various forms of technical art study as an elective part of the high-school curriculum, the aesthetic needs of the masses have been entirely overlooked. We are aware, however, that there has been developing an art for all idea in the trend of modern educational thought that promises to have a powerful and enduring influence on the education of the youth of this country.

"Experiments during the last five years in several of the New York City high-schools have shown conclusively that a course in art appreciation in which 'the center of interest moves from the intimate to the remote, from the personal to the impersonal, from the student himself to the world about him', is awakening a broader undersanding of the meaning of art to the individual, to the home, to the community, and to the industrial world. This course, designed to give to all, and especially to those who have no marked technical ability, a chance to study creatively the art that is related to their immediate surroundings, is apparently meeting a genuine need. It is,



moreover, provoking unusual interest in the development of art judgments on the part of the pupils and leading many to a deeper and more sincere study of art as it concerns their future vocations.

"In adopting this course the superintendent and board of education are convinced that this move constitutes not only a new departure in secondary education, but also a most progressive step in meeting the interest of every New York boy and girl and in contributing to the future development of art in America."

When a school board is brought to a point of appreciation of a subject, expressed in Mr. Campbell's introduction to the art appreciation course, that subject is pretty secure in the curriculum.

Turning to page seven of the course we find more "joy", if one may call the realization of a hope for a fine course in art in the high-school a "joy". The heading of the page is, *"Aim of the Course, Art Appreciation, Forrest Grant."*

"THE PURPOSE of the art appreciation course is to reveal to the pupil the beauty of nature and of the arts, so that he may recognize and enjoy the world of beautiful things about him and gain an appreciation of the finest, which will reflect beauty in his life and in his living.

"This being the ultimate objective, the art appreciation course aims:

"First, to ENGENDER LOVE OF BEAUTY, by bringing the pupil into personal contact with forms showing fine arrangement of line, mass, tone, and color, a beautiful painting, an inspiring building, a well proportioned piece of furniture, or a finely decorated fabric, so that we may have an instant emotional reaction to art qualities and may be led to realize that color and design are influenced by materials and processes, and by the artist's imagination, his genius, and his environment."

Concerning beauty, we are indebted to Dr. Frank Crane for a comment on "Things". He says: "Most of us are sensitive to our surroundings. Beauty cheers and ugliness offends,

and the love of beautiful things is entirely without regard to their cost.

"We may have to be poor but none of us have to live in ugliness.

"Don't tell me you can't help it and you can't afford it and all that. Whoever loves beauty acquires the beautiful.

"My bookcase, my pen, my rugs, and my lamp talk to me every day and I want them to say something worth while."

We have found that "Things" well lettered, make helpful attractive headings for our art room bulletin boards. Again this first aim "To Engender Love of Beauty" has been so impressed upon my mind by Helen Keller's words taken from "Three Days to See" that I am giving them to you and wishing that every art class might have a copy of them placed in a conspicuous place on its bulletin board.

"The next day," says Miss Keller, "the second day of sight, I should arise with the dawn and see the thrilling miracle by which night is transformed into day. I should behold with awe the magnificent panorama of light with which the sun awakens the sleeping earth. On this second day of sight, I should try to probe into the soul of man through his art. The things I knew through touch I should now see. More splendid still the whole magnificent world of painting would be opened to me, from the Italian Primitives, with their serene religious devotion, to the Moderns, with their feverish visions. I should look deep into the canvases of Raphael, Leonardo da Vinci, Titian, Rembrandt. I should want to feast my eyes upon the warm colors of Veronese, study the mysteries of El Greco, catch a new vision of Nature from Corot. Oh, there is so much rich meaning and beauty in the art of the ages, for you who have eyes to see!

"Upon my short visit to this temple of art, the Metropolitan Museum, I should not be able to review a fraction of that great world of art, which is open to you. I should be able to get only a superficial impression. Artists tell me that for a deep and true appreciation of art one must educate the eye.

One must learn through experience to weigh the merits of line of composition, of form, and color. If I had eyes, how happily would I embark upon so fascinating a study! Yet I am told that to many who have eyes to see, the world of art is a dark night, unexplored and unilluminated.

"It would be with extreme reluctance that I should leave the Metropolitan Museum which contains the key to beauty, a beauty so neglected. Seeing persons do not need a Metropolitan to find this key to beauty. The same key lies waiting in smaller museums and in books on the shelves of even small libraries. But naturally, in my limited time of imaginary sight, I should choose the place where the key unlocks the greatest treasures in the shortest time."

#### **Exhibit (1)**

1. Beautiful textiles, Italy, America.
2. A modern painting, Dewey Albinson.
3. Some etchings, J. Chatwood Burton.
4. A beautiful book, The Goldsmith of Florence.
5. Nalique glass.
6. A Mexican blown glass bottle with lovely rose, for line.
7. A bulletin board on "Beauty," Helen Keller's "second day," the theme.

**Second—**"To DEVELOP GOOD TASTE, by helping the pupil to cultivate the habit of thoughtful consideration before making decisions which involve judgment and choice in the selection and arrangement of things intimately connected with his daily life. Art consciousness thus becomes a permanent, vital factor in his practical life, establishing standards of good taste and discrimination which will tend to make him a dynamic force for good in his own community."

Concerning good taste, Joseph Wilseltier, State Supervisor of Art Education in Connecticut, writes, "It is difficult to change the tastes and habits of a people already grown up but it is relatively easy to inculcate desirable traits in the boys and girls who are to become the discriminating art consumers of the future. And it is necessary that this country have many

high-grade consumers. Our prosperity depends in a measure upon our ability to develop a public taste that will demand the best that it can afford."

**Exhibit (2)**—Good and bad examples of each:

1. Lamp shade.
2. Bowl, plate and mug for children.
3. Colored prints.
4. Cheap glass.
5. Flower containers.

**Third.**—"To ENRICH LIFE AND TRAIN FOR LEISURE, by acquainting the pupil with the finest expressions of the past, so that his interest in the art and life of all countries and of all periods may be stimulated. This will contribute toward the development of a cultural background for the mass of pupils who in the future will become homemakers and buyers of art products, and will aid them to understand and to appreciate more fully the art of the present day, with its changes in fashion, decoration, and industry."

Quoting Mr. Wiseltier again, "To-day we have a situation which separates into a distinct class a small body of artists and designers from a large body of utilizers or consumers. Some who sense the importance of art and try to understand, look at fine buildings, sculpture, and paintings without knowing how to appreciate them. Without the fundamentals necessary for enjoyment and appreciation they get little or no esthetic and emotional reaction. They do not get pleasure from what they see, because they cannot appreciate a work of art in the manner that one enjoys the smell of flowers or the taste of food. The one kind of enjoyment is intellectual and esthetic; the other, physical and sensual. Yet art does not appeal to the eye alone. The mind must be prepared beforehand, for it is the eye and mind working together that makes esthetic enjoyment possible.

"Let us put it this way, we live in two worlds at the same time: a physical, material world in which we eat, sleep, work, dodge traffic, and make merry; and a spiritual world, created

by men and women of imagination, poets, writers, musicians, and artists, which we enter only when we have the key to unlock its doors. We must be able to tune in on this wonderland or the voices of the air reach us not. It is in this spiritual realm that we spend most of our leisure hours. Here we see the skies of this wondrous world through Turner, Vermeer, and Renoir; the shady nooks and little pools through Inness and Corot; its rivers and streams through Vincent, Homer, and Metcalf; and its immortal emperors and kings through Van Dyck, Holbein, and Velasquez. We can see its people live again in eternal youth in the paintings of Raphael and Reynolds; we catch a glimpse of peasant life through the genius of Mauve, Breton, and Millet. Here, then, is training for worthy use of leisure time. With the modern world clamoring for a six-hour day and a five-day week, it becomes increasingly necessary for boys and girls, the men and women of to-morrow, to learn how to use wisely and worthily this ever-increasing measure of leisure time."

**Exhibit (3):**

1. Spencer stereopticon.
2. Slides on sculpture, architecture, painting.
3. Hand made slides.
4. Color prints.
5. Soap and wood carving and pictures of snow modeling by students.
6. Weaving, block-printing, lamp shades, textiles, etc., by students.
7. Charts and bulletin board on Mr. Wiseltier's quotation.

**Fourth.**—"To GRATIFY THE DESIRE TO CREATE, by affording the pupil an opportunity to exercise his imagination through creative design, keeping alive his individuality and personality. The solving of these creative problems will lead to a recognition of the fundamentals of art structure and will quicken the pupil to the necessity of finding orderly, harmonious, and useful expression for his thoughts and experiences. His effort to create beauty will strengthen his sensitiveness to

the appeal of the beautiful and bring him to the realization that good art, good character, and good citizenship are all governed by the same guiding principles of organized beauty."

Here let us note that Mr. Grant does not refer to creative problems, back of which there are no art principles.

At present there are systems in the U. S. where much emphasis is being placed on creative art, creative art without a technique.

An exhibition of such work is the most discouraging thing which those, vitally interested in teaching appreciation of the finer things of the past and present, can imagine. Not even neatness, the first principle of art, has been taught to these children.

But, turning from such an exhibition, one does get comfort from the following paragraphs by William H. Kilpatrick, Professor of Education, Teachers' College, before the Eastern Arts Association, "As I look at you and ask what you conceive your tasks to be I wonder if it could be put under these heads:

"First of all, to develop or aid or build or encourage (whatever word is best to be used) the power and disposition to create.

"Second, to teach an appropriate technique.

"Third, to build or develop (again using the appropriate word) good taste in art, appreciation of art.

"Let us think next of technique. This is a kind of revolutionary thing that I am saying, at least revolutionary in my circle of thinking. I am not so sure about yours. First of all, technique is a learning. You have to learn technique. We all agree to that. Then if I am right in what I have just said, technique is a creation, and then the boundary line between creation as ordinarily understood and technique has passed away, so that though you speak of creation and technique as if they were opposed to each other, they are not. They stand, perhaps, at different places on the scale, but they are both instances of creation and you don't have much trouble in finding

some children who cannot create, or who apparently cannot create enough to learn the technique. Others get it easily."

**Exhibit (4):**

Work done by high-school students—portfolios, textiles, jewelry, pottery, block printing, contour drawing, water colors, etc.

**Fifth.**—"To ENCOURAGE TALENT, by discovering the gifted pupil and making sure that he receives real objective training under the stimulating guidance of sympathetic trained leadership; and by familiarizing him with what creative genius has done before him, so that he may be inspired to make the most of his natural ability, for the common good and for his own personal happiness."

**Exhibit (5):**

Work of talented pupil, Florence Gray, a Denfeld high-school graduate and pupil of Lorado Taft.

Finally, "Let us agree," says Mr. Wiseltier, "that it is not our main purpose to produce artists, important as that may be. We are not teaching art for the sake of the few but for the benefit of the many. We are not teaching freehand drawing as such, so let us not call it that, but we are teaching art, art expression, and art appreciation that will develop an art consciousness in the community, that will develop a sympathetic understanding of creative effort, that will function in everyday living. Then will art cease to serve as a mere background to life, and be acknowledged as a necessary integral part of education, worthy of a prominent place in the curriculum of every school, college, and university."

Professor H. J. Smith of the School of Education of the University of Minnesota, read *Industrial Art Objectives and Their Attainment*.



## INDUSTRIAL ARTS OBJECTIVES AND THEIR ATTAINMENT

HOMER J. SMITH,  
Professor of Industrial Education,  
University of Minnesota

In the best single book that I have read in the past two years—*The Epic of America*, by James Truslow Adams, I marked the following statement: "*To clear the muddle in which our education is at present, we shall obviously have to define our values. Unless we can agree on what the values of life are, we clearly can have no goal in education, and if we have no goal, the discussion of methods is merely futile.*" It must be said with all good will that we in education are less in a muddle about our values and methods than are those who view us from afar. Yet it makes a fitting introduction to agree with Mr. Adams that unity of thought concerning aims is desirable in any movement. Rather universal acceptance of clearly defined goals in education as a whole or in any of its divisions will condition the direction and extent of our progress. That you have invited representatives of three major specialties to address you to-day and that the word *objectives* occurs in every title are pleasing evidences of your desires. We three are happy to comply with your request because such opportunities are rare and I am certain that you will not resent our common feeling that the need is greater than the call.

From the beginning of the industrial arts movement aims have been stated in great number and in broad variety. The distinct purposes advanced through the years are more than one hundred and the resultant confusion has been augmented by the fact that these have commonly lain buried in discussions of equipment, management, and method. There were decades when you administrators were generous and patient, hopeful in a hazy sort of way that we were attempting some-

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Note: Mimeographed materials, in further explanation of certain parts of the paper, were distributed at the meeting. Professor Smith will mail these to others upon request.

thing worthy and that some day we might be able to point out clearly the meaning of it all. We used to go to some length in explaining what our courses had done. We made "claims" after the fact when you would have preferred aims prior to our action. To-day we preface our courses and even the teaching units within them with definite statements of purpose. We publish brief sets of objectives for subject field and for entire departments. We think this brevity and directness of statement accounts in large measure for the increasing acceptance of industrial arts as a part of the public program and for the mounting respect accorded our teachers and supervisors. We are eager that you should understand our professional *whys* and *hows*, anticipating your help in their attainment.

I desire now to read *Six Proposed Objectives*, a set which has had currency in this state for almost ten years and which has done much to foster cooperation among all persons concerned. Each of the six statements is purposely brief and is followed by an explanation of slightly greater length.

### SIX PROPOSED OBJECTIVES

(General Industrial Training, Industrial Arts, Manual Arts, etc.)

1. TO DEVELOP SKILL IN THE USE OF COMMON TOOLS

For more worthy home membership, avocational purposes, and general preliminary training.

2. TO AFFORD INDUSTRIAL INFORMATION AND SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE

For a better understanding of the materials and processes of manufacture, the economic necessity and social usefulness of skillful labor, and the conditions and problems of industrial employment.

3. TO FOSTER APPRECIATION OF GOOD MATERIALS AND WORKMANSHIP

For intelligent and discriminating selection of manufactured products for home and business consumption

and the proper valuation of substantial and beautiful constructions in the environment.

4. TO FURTHER INTELLIGENT CHOICES OF LIFE OCCUPATIONS

For wider knowledge of the requirements of industrial jobs and positions, for better understanding of individual abilities and capacities, and for consciousness of the desirability of these two success factors being considered together.

5. TO INCULCATE WORTHY PERSONAL TRAITS AND ATTITUDES

For the building of habits of industry, initiative, resourcefulness, independence, exactness, economy, and cooperativeness.

6. TO PROVIDE A MEASURE OF SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

For advantageous entrance upon and progress in suitable lines of work, when conditions point to early assumption of the responsibilities of earning a living.

(Let us read again merely the brief, first statements)

(Let us next repeat the six introductory phrases—to *develop—to afford—to foster—to further—to inculcate—to provide*. You will note the absence of expressions such as *to do, to construct, to repair, to assemble*, and the like.)

Whatever the items in our standard lists of aims, there is one general concept which needs continual stress; namely, that industrial arts is a part of general education. The industrial arts group is not necessarily a selected one. In the most progressive school systems it comprises all boys of certain grades and slopes off by election after the compulsory span. In other systems, under free choice or curriculum advice, there is a tendency for the group reporting for these courses to be inferior in general intelligence to those who avoid the department. We must work toward the defeat of any degree of selection. We must strive for a thorough cross-section if not for one hundred

per cent enrolment, each boy for at least a brief contact. We must stress our courses as worthy parts of the fundamental training of all boys. We must show that our subjects and methods make a contribution that is unique and that should be denied to none. And this privilege should be extended to the boys in private and parochial schools. If industrial arts is really a function of full development, we stand rebuked until every American boy has these advantages regardless of his school connections. Our slogan may well be: "Industrial arts for every American boy and trade or technical training for carefully selected boys in the numbers that can be placed."

Everyone should have some knowledge of the processes, the working conditions, and the employment possibilities of our industrial society. One's education is not complete in these days without some understanding of the history and trends of manufacture and exchange. So many people are either directly concerned or so clearly affected that industrial information and insights have become **a necessity**.

No one will dispute the statement that industrial subjects have an extensive and interesting content. The course materials in these fields are as definitely located and almost as well organized as are the materials of English, science, mathematics, geography, and history. We often make the mistake of being content to keep boys busy in the shops making things and fixing things. We have permitted boys to assume that the work is done chiefly for the completion of the jobs and for the personal possession of the project. We have looked too steadily toward the annual exhibit which occasion is an institution of harm rather than of help to our cause.

Our job as industrial arts teachers is largely an informational one. We are not obligated to duplicate the processes of factories and other work places, but merely to sample them and to explain them. We are not attempting to produce craftsmen. We are hoping, rather, to give boys those experiences and those informations that are useful in average living and in any calling. We offer instruction to boys who will become lawyers, farmers, dentists, and store-keepers, as well as industrial workmen.

In industrial arts work we are chiefly concerned with deferred values. We seek to interest, to inform, to inspire, and to guide. We bring still other subjects into the school life of the boy to play their parts in his development. We assume that the experiences of this special department will do for him or to him, as he grows, something different from and in addition to what the formal or academic subjects can do.

I feel certain that we are spending an undue portion of class time in manipulation and that, in such informational work as we attempt, we stress facts to the exclusion of enduring principles. Likewise, we are prone to neglect the histories of occupations, the qualifications of workers, and the practical conditions of employment. We are failing to realize full exploratory values because we omit or slight the knowledge elements for the sake of getting things done. We should encourage industrial scholarship by teaching more during the period and by exacting more of the study time. We need to look upon our courses as pseudo sciences with our shops and drafting rooms as laboratories.

There is no law or rule to the effect that boys should enter a shop and go immediately to work. There ought to be a rule that they invariably seat themselves before the instructor to find what he may have planned in new and different procedure. Boys should not approach a class period with the feeling that the time is theirs for the advancement of their projects and jobs. Rather than to look askance at the instructor when he claims a portion of the hour, they should meet with understanding that skills and product are incidental and that the primary elements of the course will call more for brain than for brawn. You say they are there to work? Some of us deny it. We say they are there to learn and that manipulation alone will not insure a proper return on the space, time, and money allotted. A part of each week or even of each class hour should be given to group work of really informative kind. There should be textbooks, recitations, assigned readings, home work, notebooks, examinations, and failures in these subjects as in all others. There should be field trips, on schedule, to manufacturing plants, stores, buildings in construction, road-making

sites, and wherever else people may be seen at work and where better notions can be had of the skill and ingenuity of man.

A considerable amount of information must be imparted about basic raw materials, their places of origin, their natural states, their working properties, and their finished uses. By this means boys become better acquainted with the environment and have a better sense of what men do. They draw a little closer to appropriate occupational selection because they discover whether they have abilities and interests in the mechanical and technical fields. Young, active boys want to make things and fix things, of course, but they are much more interested in learning. They like that industrial teacher best who broadens them most. They will drop their tools to toy with a new idea. Any industrial teacher who assumes that boys can learn about industry through hand and machine work alone does not have full vision of his task. If, in addition, he assumes that there is nothing to be learned except in his presence or from his own meagre experience, we may say that he has never learned to teach.

In the six-grade elementary school there is no need of specially trained industrial teachers nor of special shops with tools and materials. The regular classroom teachers, in connection with the standard subjects, the activities room and the like can give us our beginning. They can encourage self-expression of manual type. They can insure acquaintance with the rudiments of work life and work relationships. They can see that children gain notions of service and sense the interdependence of men and of employments. It will suffice if elementary-school pupils learn that industry is important, that it is greatly diversified, that men work so that they and others may live, that sooner or later each child of to-day must play his part in the labor that is life.

The industrial work of the junior high-school is best conceived as informational and exploratory. Here we begin the formal teaching of industrial processes and plans. Special teachers are engaged and equipments provided representative of such common fields as woodwork, drawing, metal work, printing, electricity, and auto mechanics. There is no inten-



tion of producing craftsmen and little importance attaches to the projects and jobs done by boys. These pieces of work are carefully selected by instructors who have been trained in analysis and course organization. Good teachers assure themselves that all appropriate **doing** and **knowing** units are included in each course and that they are given progressive arrangement. (See report of the American Vocational Association Committee on Standards in Industrial Arts. Send fifteen cents in stamps to Mr. C. M. Miller, State Director of Vocational Education, Topeka, Kansas.)

We need to draw a little closer together on the question of what courses should be offered in schools of differing size, in communities of varying type, and at the several levels within a school system. For the upper grades and junior high-school I see no reason why we should not all employ the same few subjects. We would seem to have need in these beginning years for identically named courses, perhaps six of them, each a semester in length. They would need to be well chosen to present the geography, the transportation, the manufacture, and the ultimate uses of certain raw materials. They would need to be the best few subjects with which to picture broad classes of industrial occupations and the highly variable conditions under which industrial work is done. The chief aims at this level are physical coordination, industrial intelligence, and a start in the direction of occupational choice. To attempt to match the community type and need at this level is to deny the major purpose of the junior high-school.

Beyond this junior period, I should desire that the department offer an even larger and broader set of courses than is now common. At this higher or high-school level there should be more diversity of offering, more latitude of choice, and more intensity of treatment. We look upon the senior school as a preparatory institution. Some students are prepared for colleges and universities but a much greater number are presumably made ready for immediate entrance to a working world. Both of these groups have equal rights to the courses which will best fit them for the experiences and the demands in view. Industrial courses should be compulsory for all boys in the jun-



ior school but thoroughly elective in the senior unit. Students, under counsel, should elect whether they will take any, which ones, when, whether in scatter or concentration,—all, of course, in recognition of any clear prerequisites which may have been defined.

Some of these courses should afford specific preparation for engineering or for industrial teaching. Other courses should be based upon the local industries, should be truly vocational in character, and should lead to placement within the community. There must be increased provision for vocational education, broadly interpreted, in the offering of the secondary-school. No agency other than the school may be supposed to meet full requirements in this respect for the individual and for society. No institutional type other than the high-school can be sufficiently cosmopolitan and universal to attain the measure of such training that will be demanded. Vocational education to be adequate, must be wide-spread, varied, and democratic. The industrial arts work of the high-school should tend to the highly practical. One of our chief needs just now is to make the high-schools so democratic and so attractive that young people will be kept longer out of competition with their elders.

In the upper grades and junior period we may employ rather standard operations, exercises, projects, jobs, and problems. There are certain fundamental **skills, informations, appreciations, and attitudes** which we want all boys to acquire and which can be embodied in and built around some few selected assignments. There must be, of course, some matching of individual, seasonal, and immediate interests, but on the whole the instruction may well go forward along the same lines for all. But for the older boys, with these elementary things attained, we must turn to other motives and use other means. The work must be planned to teach cooperative effort, the use of jigs and the duplication of parts, the routing of work in process, the likelihood of accident, the monotony of specialization, the economy of materials, and the value of time. These are aims which must be realized if education means developing and if industrial subjects are to make a distinct contribution.

These are things that can be taught in the school shops with more clarity and more certainty than anywhere else in the system.

We admit that there must continue to be much individual work upon simple, single projects but we insist that there must also be combination projects, semi-production jobs, and cooperative assignments. There must be opportunity for student formanship and other devices for the building of responsibility. There must be some plan for acquainting boys with how to get along with those both above and beneath in the line organization of the work-world. There must be coordination among the industrial subjects, correlation with the clearly academic branches, assistance in the extra-curricula load of the school, and a fine functional relation with the department of art.

The present emphasis upon personal instruction and the use of written directive materials has greatly strengthened our content. We are improving our courses but, at the same time, experiencing a slump in method. Students are sensitive to good methods. Good method is even more important than good content, and variety in class conduct is the essence of good method. The whole-hearted acceptance of the fact of individual differences does not force a teacher to a method or a plan wholly or strongly individual. Indeed, detailed study of students and of groups calls for the greatest possible variety in method, lest the learning ways of some be left unmatched in the process of teaching. The belief that students differ is not logically followed by the decision to instruct them all alike, even through a method individual in kind.

The first-class industrial arts teacher is one who is committed to and trained for group presentation and who knows enough about the individual method to supplement his group attempts. He knows how to make use of the textbook plan, how to lecture, and how to demonstrate. The old fashioned question-and-answer recitation is not entirely outside his abilities. He knows how to deal with a whole class, or a part of it, or one lone member of it and all to good effect. He knows how to assign library and home work, not omitting their comple-

ment of suggestions on how to proceed to study. In short, he is skillful in several types of presentation. He knows how to get and to control the student activity necessary for learning and retention. He possesses abilities in the field of discipline, departmental management, and general whole-school helpfulness. These abilities and viewpoints cannot be acquired quickly. They are best gained through long-continued residence in institutions where teachers are prepared, not in trade work where product and dividends are paramount. We need some practical experience in the background of some of our teachers but the major call is for training more in keeping with the avowed purposes of industrial arts instruction.

In conclusion let me reaffirm that these courses should be a constant for all boys in some amount, that the emphasis should be upon the informational and social aspects of the work rather than upon the economic, and that a teacher of fine preparation is much to be preferred to a thorough, trade-like equipment. We are responsible for imparting *skills, informations, appreciations, and attitudes*. Industrial credit in a boy's record have come to mean that he knows something which other boys have missed and that this something is important in a practical world of increasing difficulty. Many junior and senior high-school subjects now required or strongly encouraged are of comparatively little importance. They cannot so clearly argue competence in the fulfillment of secondary purposes. In the early stages let us stress acquaintance and self-expression; a little later, the elementary processes and conditions of numerous employment fields; and later still, a deeper delving of a technical sort in the realm of a reasonable choice. And let us think of it all as a part, a most necessary part, of the *general education* of our youth.

## GROUP NO. 3

The Junior-College Section met in the East Room with Alden John Burton, Principal of West High-School, of Des Moines, in the chair.

Professor W. W. Carpenter of the University of Missouri, presented his paper, *Recent Developments in Junior-College Administration*.

## RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN JUNIOR COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

W. W. CARPENTER,  
Professor of Education,  
University of Missouri.

Junior Colleges come and go but the total number and the total enrollment are rapidly increasing. The net increase in the number of names appearing in the 1932 junior college directory was 33. In 1933 the junior college directory showed a net increase of 24 names. While these figures do indicate substantial gains during this period of depression, yet they do not tell the whole story.

The 1932 junior college directory included the names of 55 junior colleges which did not appear in the 1931 directory. Of this number, 10 were public colleges and 45 were private colleges. On the other hand, however, there were 22 colleges listed in 1931 which did not appear in 1932; four of these colleges were public and 18 were private. The net increase in the number of junior colleges appearing in 1932 was therefore 33.<sup>1</sup>

Although the 1933 directory showed a total of 24 more junior colleges than the 1932 directory, the names of 21 junior colleges that appeared in 1932 did not appear in 1933 and 45 names in the 1933 directory did not appear in the 1932 directory. Of the 21 names which appeared in 1932, but did not

<sup>1</sup>W. C. Eells, "Junior College Growth," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Feb. 1932), Vol. II, p. 291.

appear in 1933, four were public and 17 were private. Of the 45 names appearing in 1933 which did not appear in 1932, 10 were public and 35 were private.<sup>2</sup>

Such a vast array of changes surely deserves some explanation. New names may appear in the directory because of a change in the organization of the college which is often accompanied by a change in name. Colleges that have been in existence for some time may have reported to the secretary for the first time. Four year colleges may have been reduced to junior colleges. New colleges may have been formed which report promptly to the secretary. It does seem quite significant that for the two year period the number of new names appearing should total 100.

Names that have once appeared may fail to appear again when the college closes as an educational institution or when a college department of a secondary-school system is eliminated. Some names no longer appear because of the addition of senior college work. During this same two-year period a total of 43 names of colleges were withdrawn from the directories.

**Changes in Administrative Head.**—A comparison of the 1931 and 1932 directories indicated a change in the administrative head of 15 per cent of the colleges.<sup>3</sup> For the public college this totaled 23 per cent and for the private college 10 per cent. A comparison of the names of administrators of junior colleges in the 1932 and 1933 directories show a change in only 12 per cent of the colleges. This figure is the same for public junior colleges and private junior colleges.<sup>4</sup>

The fact that the percentage of change in the administrative head lowered from 15 per cent in 1932 to 12 per cent in 1933 seems quite significant. It would indicate growing stability in the face of the depression. The marked drop in the per cent of change in the administrative heads of public junior colleges is quite noticeable.

<sup>2</sup>W. C. Eells, "Junior College Growth," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Feb. 1933), Vol. III, p. 279.

<sup>3</sup>W. C. Eells, "Junior College Growth," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Feb. 1932), Vol. II, pp. 291-292.

<sup>4</sup>W. C. Eells, "Junior College Growth," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Feb. 1933), Vol. III, p. 280.

**Changes in Junior College Organization.**—A comparison of the directories of 1932 and 1933 also indicated that the two year organization is growing in popularity, the number of junior colleges organized on a two year basis in 1932 was 192 while in 1933 the number had increased to 219. The increase in the two year college is quite noticeable for the private college, rising from 71 in 1932 to 97 in 1933. The 4-2 organization seems to have lost some ground since there were 147 in 1932 and 142 in 1933. The six year organization increased from 29 to 33, the four year organization decreased from 29 to 28 and the 2-2 organization increased from 21 to 23. Changes in other types of organization were not large as shown by table I.

Table I.

CHANGES IN JUNIOR COLLEGE ORGANIZATION  
(Number of Junior Colleges of Different Types of Organization)<sup>5</sup>

Organization in Years	1932			1933		
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total
1	3	1	4	2	1	3
2	121	71	192	122	97	219
3					1	1
4	9	20	29	8	20	28
5					2	2
6	3	26	29	8	25	33
2-2	5	16	21	8	15	23
4-2	30	117	147	32	110	142
3-3	1		1	1		1
3-2	5	2	7	4	6	10
1-2		1	1		1	1
4-1					1	1

<sup>5</sup>Only those colleges listed which indicated an organization. Adapted from Doak S. Campbell, Directory of the Junior College, 1932," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Jan. 1932), Vol. II, pp. 235-248 and Doak S. Campbell, "Directory of the Junior College, 1933," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Jan. 1933), Vol. III, pp. 217-230.

The changes in organization actually occurring are probably greater than the above statements would indicate. The information in table I includes all junior colleges which indicated an organization for the year in question, but when it is recalled that 21 names appeared in 1932 that did not appear in 1933 and that 45 names appeared in 1933 that did not appear in 1932 it is realized that the total gross number of changes made may have been great. A study of colleges which furnished information for both years showed that 22 colleges that indicated a 4-2 organization in 1932 indicated a two year organization in 1933 and 11 colleges that indicated a two year organization in 1932 indicated a 4-2 organization in 1933.

**Universities Recognize a Difference in the Work of the Lower Two Years and the Upper Two Years.**—Several of our universities recognize the difference in the work of their two lower years and that of the upper two years of their four year courses by using the terms lower division and upper division. A recent report from the University of Utah indicates that,

"Beginning with the autumn quarter, 1932, all freshmen enrolling in the University of Utah, except those entering the School of Mines and Engineering, will register in a new administrative unit to be known as the lower division of the university. It is contemplated that in 1933, or later, the lower division will be extended to include the sophomores as well as the freshmen. This reorganization comes as the result of much discussion and deliberation by the faculty and by the board of regents. Upon the satisfactory completion of two years of approved work the student will be awarded a certificate of graduation from the lower division. This certificate may or may not admit the holder to the upper-division schools, depending upon the degree of excellence of his work and the courses which he has pursued."<sup>6</sup>

This statement gives the impression that the University of Utah not only recognizes that there is a difference between

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<sup>6</sup>"Utah Lower Division," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Nov. 1932), Vol. III, p. 102.



the upper and lower divisions but also that the lower division of a university may have a function in addition to preparing students for the upper two years.

The new junior college of the University of Minnesota, which opened this year with several hundred students of all grades of ability from high to low also indicates that universities can become interested in the students who are not preparing to go on as is indicated by the quotation which follows:

"The plan of the Junior College calls for a two-year rounded education for that half of the University of Minnesota students who do not at present graduate from a four-year or longer course of study."<sup>7</sup>

#### **The Teachers College and the Junior College—**

"And now it appears that the teachers colleges have found a use for this popular expression, 'junior college' . . . .

"Within the last two decades the expression junior college has been adopted by many of the regular four-year teachers colleges . . . .

"By 1930 a total of thirteen institutions, or approximately 20 per cent of those included in the study, had given the name junior college to the work of the first two years . . . .

"This study reveals the fact that there is a growing tendency on the part of state teachers colleges, either consciously or otherwise, to become aware of the existence of the junior college and accept it in name, if not as an institution with separate and distinct functions."<sup>8</sup>

There seems to be a rather unusual movement, probably as a result of the depression, to advocate reducing teachers colleges to junior colleges. The staff appointed to survey the higher-education program of the state of North Carolina rec-

<sup>7</sup>University of Minnesota," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Nov. 1932), Vol. III, p. 104.

<sup>8</sup>O. G. Jamison, "Developing Junior College Consciousness," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Nov. 1932), Vol. III, pp. 81-83.

ommended that two teacher training institutions be reduced to junior colleges.<sup>9</sup> The staff appointed to make a study of the government of the state of Texas recommended that four teachers colleges be made junior colleges and to become branches of the University of Texas. An alternate plan offered was for the state to abandon the institutions and to consider the possibility of creating around each a junior college district of considerable territory.<sup>10</sup> A large number of the people of Oregon seem dissatisfied with the reorganization of their institutions of higher education. Among the plans that have been suggested for consideration is the abandonment of one normal school and converting the others into junior colleges.<sup>11</sup> The survey of higher education in Oregon recommended that junior college work be offered in two of the normal schools.<sup>12</sup>

**Millsaps Adds Another College to Its System.**—There are in operation both public and private branch junior colleges. The "Millsaps-Whitworth Collegiate System", made up of two Methodist colleges in Mississippi, has added another branch to its system, as the following indicates:

"Grenada College, Grenada, Mississippi, which has been a four-year college for women since the middle of the last century, has abandoned its upper two years of work and joined with Whitworth and Millsaps colleges in Mississippi in what will be known as the Millsaps System of Colleges. Grenada now joins with Whitworth in doing junior college work exclusively, students who desire to go farther then transferring to Millsaps."<sup>13</sup>

**Suggested Changes in California.**—The report of the survey of higher education in California sponsored by the Carne-

<sup>9</sup>"The Reporter," *The Journal of Higher Education* (Jan. 1933), Vol. IV, p. 37.

<sup>10</sup>"Education, Teachers' Colleges," Part X of *The Government of the State of Texas* (Dec. 15, 1932), pp. 1-2.

<sup>11</sup>"The Reporter," *The Journal of Higher Education* (Jan. 1933), Vol. IV, p. 39.

<sup>12</sup>"Oregon Development," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Dec. 1932), Vol. III, p. 165.

<sup>13</sup>"Joins Millsaps System," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Nov. 1932), Vol. III, p. 102.

gie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching makes very significant recommendations concerning the junior college. The report will not be discussed in detail but the following recommendations will be given:

"... that the junior college should be recognized as the completion unit of free, tax-supported, public education; that graduation from it should be marked by the title of 'Associate in Arts'; that the curriculum should be broadened especially along the lines of 'social intelligence' and adult education; that increased emphasis should be placed upon better counseling and guidance; that education of freshman and sophomore grades, whether given in junior colleges, in teachers' colleges, or in the university, should be upon the same basis, as far as possible, especially as regards preparation of instructors and financial support; and that under present conditions the development of four-year, independent, regional colleges from junior colleges should not be permitted."<sup>14</sup>

The above report has created a great deal of discussion both favorable and unfavorable in California and throughout the United States, as indicated by the recent literature. Those interested in the development of the junior college idea will await with a great deal of interest the changes in the organization and administration of the junior colleges of California and the extent to which they comply with the recommendations of the survey staff.

The Staff of the United States Survey of Secondary Education carried on the following project in California:

"Seven counties in California were studied with a view to discovering the relations between present Union High-School District organization and the progress of educational reorganization, as it relates to

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<sup>14</sup>W. C. Eells, "State Higher Education in California," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Oct. 1932), Vol. III, p. 31.

vertical articulation of the units of the school system."<sup>15</sup>

The counties were tentatively divided into "superintendency areas", which would give increased opportunities for at least 85% of the children and would allow reorganization on the 6-3-3-2, 6-6-2, or 6-4-4 plan; there would be unified as against dual control, and equalization of burden. The commission suggested that regional junior colleges with larger areas of administration be considered.

Another study of the junior college situation in California by Walter would care for "97% of the high-school population" and would have available in the districts "97% of the assessed valuation of the state" without increasing the number of junior colleges.<sup>16</sup> Walter's report was submitted to the Carnegie Commission.

**The Present Organization in Oklahoma Is Questioned.**—A report of a survey of one of the state supported junior colleges of Oklahoma has the following to say:

"... that state-supported junior colleges can never function successfully as four- or six-year institutions, and that vocational schools tend to up-grade toward professional levels, vocational courses losing caste and atrophying before the superior prestige of academic subjects; for in Oklahoma these institutions tend toward two years of traditional college work, while serving a few over-age students and a diminishing number of students from communities offering little high-school education."<sup>17</sup>

That there is some dissatisfaction in Oklahoma is also revealed by the following abstract of a letter from the State Superintendent of Schools of Oklahoma:

<sup>15</sup>W. M. Proctor, "The Relation of Larger Administrative Units to Tax Burdens and Educational Efficiency," *Cal. Quarterly of Secondary Education* (June, 1932), Vol. VII, pp. 379-383.

<sup>16</sup>A. Walter, "A Proposed System of Junior Colleges for the State of California," *Cal. Quarterly of Secondary Education* (Oct. 1932), Vol. VIII, pp. 68-77.

<sup>17</sup>H. G. Bennett and S. Scroggs, "The Junior College Idea in Oklahoma," *The J. Col. Journal* (Nov. 1932), Vol. III, p. 77.

"There has been some agitation for the establishment of junior college districts which would make the present state junior college local institutions instead of state supported. Some such law may be proposed at the forthcoming session of the legislature.

"There is also considerable agitation for the abolishment of the present state junior colleges."<sup>18</sup>

**A Plan Suggested for New Jersey.**—"Recommendations to the New Jersey State Legislature have been submitted by the Board of Regents of Rutgers University that a State University be established to embrace all public education. The proposed university will consist of junior colleges, college of liberal arts, technical schools, professional schools, and at some future time normal schools and teachers' colleges."<sup>19</sup>

**Prospect Not Bright in New York.**—"About ten of our private secondary-schools would like to establish junior college departments, but our rules and regulations state that 'a junior college must have a minimum endowment of at least \$250,000' and the Education Law states that 'no individual, association or institution may use the term "college" until written permission to do so has been granted by the Board of Regents.' . . . Under the circumstances, the present picture in this state is not bright for the establishment of either public or private junior college within the next five-year period."<sup>20</sup>

**Kansas City, Joliet, Tulsa and Stephens.**—Among the very interesting and valuable experiments being conducted by the junior colleges are those at Kansas City, Missouri; Joliet, Illinois; Tulsa, Oklahoma; and Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.

"The (Kansas City) experiment seeks to shorten the period usually devoted to the work of the high-school and the junior college by one year. The plan

<sup>18</sup>Personal letter from the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Oklahoma, under date of December 15, 1932.

<sup>19</sup>"New Jersey Plans," *The Jr. Col. Journal* (Nov. 1932), Vol. III, p. 102.

<sup>20</sup>Personal letter from The State Education Department of The University of the State of New York, under date of January 3, 1933.

involves the elimination of duplications, the omission of materials that seem irrelevant, and the improving of techniques both in teaching and in study."<sup>21</sup>

The first class under the new plan will graduate in 1933. The Universities of Missouri and Kansas have agreed to co-operate with the experiment by admitting the graduates of the new plan with junior standing.<sup>22</sup>

The North Central Association Committee appointed to inspect the Joliet Junior College Experiment recommended that the experiment be continued and extended to other subject fields than chemistry and history.<sup>23</sup> The committee appointed to inspect the Tulsa experiment recommended that the experiment be continued. The Tulsa experiment is attempting to do 14 years' work in 12. These two experiments promise to be of far-reaching importance from the standpoint of school administration.

The Stephens College report is as follows:

"As a result of five years' experimentation at Stephens College, we are quite certain that with the students who are enrolled with us and under the conditions and limitations which we studied the problem there is no justification for the arbitrary line of demarcation between senior high-school and junior college."<sup>24</sup>

As a result of this experiment the University of Chicago, the University of Minnesota, the Greeley Teachers College, and probably other universities and colleges have agreed to admit for a period of five years the graduates of Stephens to junior standing upon the recommendations of the Stephens College faculty, waiving normal entrance and freshman and sophomore requirements. Dr. Wood says of the plan:

<sup>21</sup>"Report on Institutional Experiments," *North Central Assoc. Quarterly* (Sept. 1932), Vol. VII, pp. 172-184.

<sup>22</sup>Personal letters from Office of the Registrar of University of Kansas and from the Registrar of the University of Missouri.

<sup>23</sup>"Report on Institutional Experiments," *North Central Assoc. Quarterly* (Sept. 1932), Vol. VII, pp. 172-184.

<sup>24</sup>Loc. cit.

"It will enable us to continue into the upper division courses our experiment of admitting students into college courses directly from sophomore and junior high-school classes."<sup>25</sup>

**The High-School Postgraduate Problem.**—The problems of the high-school postgraduate are closely related to the problems of the junior college. In many instances the high-school postgraduate group has formed the nucleus for a new junior college. The number of postgraduates in our high-schools has been increasing over a series of years. The importance of the problem is indicated by the fact that one student used for the title of his doctoral dissertation, *Educational Opportunities Provided for Postgraduate Students in Public High-Schools*.<sup>26</sup>

The growth of postgraduate enrollment in the high-school is indicated by the following table.<sup>27</sup>

**Growth of Postgraduate Enrollment in Public High-Schools**

YEAR	Postgraduate Enrollment
1919-20 .....	7,986*
1921-22 .....	9,101*
1923-24 .....	8,492*
1925-26 .....	17,319*
1927-28 .....	18,783*
1929-30 .....	29,225†

October 1932—"The number of postgraduates in high-school has increased 800 per cent in the last 10 years."<sup>28</sup>

The situation is clearly described in the following quotation:

"Without jobs and without money, thousands of high-school graduates have returned to school. The

<sup>25</sup>Letter from President James M. Wood, President Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.

<sup>26</sup>E. W. Jacobsen, "Educational Opportunities Provided for Postgraduate Students in Public High-Schools," *Contributions to Education*, No. 523, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932.

<sup>27</sup>Adapted from Jacobsen, p. 5.

\*U. S. Office of Education Bulletins.

†Based on Jacobsen.



army of unemployed graduates knocking at the high-school door numbers, it is estimated, 100,000."<sup>28</sup>

Jacobsen suggests three ways of handling the postgraduate problem. His third suggestion follows:

"The third and most satisfactory solution to this problem, from the point of view of the postgraduate student, would be for one high-school in a given area to assume the responsibility for giving an appropriate program for the postgraduate students of all the high-schools in this area . . . .

"The school selected to perform this function would give academic subjects on a level which would be recognized and for which credit would be given by colleges and universities as is now the situation with the better junior colleges. It would provide opportunities for exploration in professional and semi-professional fields."<sup>30</sup>

The administrator of the school established according to the above quotation will be writing to our secretary before the end of a year requesting that his school be included in the next junior college directory.

Is this situation only temporary or may we expect it to continue for some time or even indefinitely? In the first place, no one knows how long the depression will last. Next, when conditions do improve can all unemployed be absorbed into industry? Some writers indicate that because of the development of machinery that there would now be room for only 50 per cent of the unemployed if our factories were to reopen at the 1929 peak production.<sup>31</sup> At any rate, it seems safe to say that the number of high-school postgraduates will not appreciably decrease in the next few years. The presence of large numbers of such students offers a real challenge to our school

<sup>28</sup>"Rain Checks on Diplomas," *School Life* (Oct. 1932), Vol. XVIII, p. 29.

<sup>29</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>30</sup>Jacobsen, p. 72.

<sup>31</sup>W. W. Parrish, "Technocracy's Question," *The New Outlook* (Dec. 1932), Vol. 161, pp. 13-17.

systems. Can work be organized for them that will not only keep them off the streets and employed but also that will better equip them for service? The problems confronting those dealing with the high-school postgraduate are largely those being successfully handled by our junior colleges. The junior college may be called upon to make many an investigation and many a contribution to school reorganization and adjustment during the period of this crisis.

Professor D. S. Campbell of George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, presented his material, an abstract of which is below:

### RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN INSTRUCTION AT THE JUNIOR COLLEGE LEVEL

*By* DOAK S. CAMPBELL,  
George Peabody College,  
Nashville, Tennessee.

One of the earliest claims made for the junior college, and one that has persisted throughout its history is that it provides superior instruction for students of junior college rank. Until comparatively recent times, however, the literature relating to the junior college has taken little account of instruction. Through the greater part of its history the junior college has had to concern itself primarily with finding its place in the administrative scheme and establishing its claim to respectability by meeting the standards of various accrediting agencies. The early literature is filled with discussions of administrative relationships, most of which relate to standards for accreditation.

More recently, however, since the junior college has come to be accepted as a definite unit in our educational system, attention is being focused upon the educational program, both from the standpoint of the materials included in the courses of study and the quality of teaching.

Efforts to improve instruction at the junior college level are being prosecuted as vigorously in four-year colleges and

universities as in separate junior colleges. In fact, a few of our large universities have definitely assumed the lead in this improvement. Special mention should be made of the work that is being done in the University of Minnesota, University of Wisconsin and University of Chicago. Much has been written about the work in these institutions, and reports of progress are promised as further developments occur. Hence no specific references are included in this report.

The literature of the junior college discloses that the following means are being employed in efforts to improve instruction at the junior college level. These are not mutually exclusive, and some of them are capable of considerable expansion and subdivision.

1. **Supervision.**—This is usually under the direction of a dean or director of instruction and includes a visitation of classes, conferences with instructors or groups of instructors, and suggestions for improvement. In many cases the supervisors make suggestions only when requested by teachers to do so.

2. **Personal Organization and Guidance.**—This includes a wide variety of practices which endeavor to improve instruction by adjusting the student to tasks for which he is properly suited. This practice has been widely extended during the past three or four years.

3. **Professional Study Groups Among Faculty Members.**—This includes a number of activities related to in-service training of junior college teachers. Study groups cover a wide variety of subjects, not necessarily related directly to teaching. There are evidences that the professional growth thus accomplished has resulted in improved instruction. In several junior colleges these study groups have supplanted the traditional faculty meetings.

4. **Interclass Visitation.** This is frequently practiced in institutions whose faculties are large enough to have a number of teachers teaching the same subject. Such visitation is usually stimulated by the dean or director of instruction.

5. **Interschool Visitation.**—This is rarely practiced, due to the heavy expense involved. There are instances in which institutions located near each other find this relationship very stimulating.

6. **Study and Revision of Curriculum.**—This takes a number of forms and involves a large variety of activities. Most frequently the study of aims of education at the junior college level appears to react immediately upon the improvement of instruction.

7. **Testing and Examination Program.**—This involves numerous types of activities, including comprehensive examination by visiting professors and cooperative testing services.

8. **Administrative Organization.**—In a few instances the peculiar type of administrative organization appears to contribute directly to the improvement of instruction. For example, some junior colleges tend to relieve the dean of administrative details and permit him to devote his entire time to the instructional program. A few schools have added an official known as director of instruction or dean of instruction. Also such organization as the 6-4-4 plan, which tends to produce a unified program through four years, appears to show improvement in instruction.

9. **Experimentation,** both with respect to methods of teaching and also the materials of instruction, grade placement, and time allotments.

Professor William Martin Proctor of Stanford University read his paper entitled *How the Six-four-four Plan Is Working in Three California Communities*.

## HOW THE SIX-FOUR-FOUR PLAN IS WORKING IN THREE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITIES

WILLIAM MARTIN PROCTOR,  
Stanford University.

The 6-4-4 type of organization is well enough understood by the members of this association not to need preliminary

discussion as to theory I shall therefore proceed at once to describe the practical applications of the plan in three California communities: Pasadena, a residential city of 80,000 people, where the plan is in its fifth year of complete operation; Ventura, a city of 15,000 plus eight or nine rural elementary districts, where it is now in its third year of operation; and Compton, a suburban area between Los Angeles and Long Beach of about 50,000 population, where it is in its first year of operation. These three centers afford an excellent opportunity to study the 6-4-4 type of administrative organization under differing financial, social, and educational backgrounds and to discover whether the plan has elements of strength that should recommend it to other communities or whether it is just another educational pipe-dream.

During the academic year 1931-1932 the writer was on leave from Stanford University and was employed by the Board of Education of Pasadena to conduct a series of research studies into the working of the Pasadena project after four years of operation. He was also retained as consultant by Ventura in matters of curriculum reorganization, and spent one day each month for ten months working with the public school teachers and administrators of that city. He was likewise in a position to make a study of the Compton situation where they were in process of making the transfer to the 6-4-4 basis of operation which became an accomplished fact in September 1932.

In such a brief presentation it is difficult to know on which features of the various projects to report. Perhaps it will be best to discuss each unit separately, taking up the operation first of the four year junior high-school and second the operation of the four year.

The researches in Pasadena, which were conducted by twenty committees, brought out a number of ways in which the four year junior high-schools are affording a richer educational opportunity than was afforded by the three year type which preceded it.

It was brought out, for example, that a great variety of additions to equipment in books, laboratory apparatus, industrial arts shop equipment, and physical education supplies are brought to the junior high-schools by the addition of the 10th grade. Not all of this equipment benefits the students in the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades, but a substantial portion of it does. This is particularly true in the case of science, art, industrial arts, and home economics classes. There was evidence also that the general level of teacher qualifications had been raised. An unusually high percentage of the teachers had full secondary credentials, i. e. the equivalent of five years of preparation beyond high school. In Pasadena the verdict of the teachers was almost unanimous that they preferred to teach in the four-year type of junior high-school rather than the three year type. All but the new recruits had had experience in both types of junior high-school.

The exploratory work of the four-year junior high-schools was also investigated. It was found that the better equipment of the shops and the fact that industrial arts could be stressed and specific vocational training allocated entirely to the four-year junior college, or the four-year technical high-school, made it possible to put all the emphasis upon the exploratory function of the junior high-school courses. The further fact that there is a four year continuity of guidance by trained counselors in addition to teacher contact and acquaintance enhances the child's opportunity to discover his special interest and abilities in the classroom work and the social activities which the students manage themselves.

In Pasadena it was found that the gap between the 9th and 10th grades, which existed under the 6-3-3-2 organization, was almost entirely wiped out under the new arrangement. Transfers for all purposes only amounted to 15 per cent of the total enrollment over a four-year period. However, all but a very few of these transfers went to other junior high-schools in Pasadena or elsewhere in order to continue full time attendance. Drop-outs to go to work, therefore, only amounted to 2.2 per cent of the total junior high-school enrollment.

Nearly one half of these "to-go-to-work" dropouts were later enrolled in the continuation school. Pasadena carried, therefore, over 95 per cent of its school population to or through the tenth grades of its four year junior high-schools, or in its technical and continuation schools.

In the matter of social or student activities it was found that the presence of the tenth grades in the junior high-schools brings in a quality of student leadership which makes it possible to turn over to the students the direction of and responsibility for these activities. Teacher direction and stimulation, while still necessary and desirable, can be much more easily relegated to the background leaving more of the leadership in the hands of the students than is usually possible in the three year type of junior high-school. The percentage of students holding merit-earning offices increased steadily from the 7th grade through the 10th grade with an average of 70 per cent of the officers or leaders in student activities chosen from among the 9th and 10th grade students. This provides excellent civic-leadership training and stimulates a high type of student morale.

A follow-up study of those who transferred to the four-year junior college over a five semester period, was made. This study revealed that in every one of fifteen school subjects those who had been trained in Pasadena four year junior high-schools made a higher average grade point ratio than those who came from outside schools to the junior college or to the technical high-school. This at least indicates that the quality of instruction has not suffered on account of the administrative change. It allows a very strong presumption that the quality of instruction has actually improved since the grade point ratios of the four year junior high-school students improved semester by semester up through the fifth consecutive semester, while those of the outside students fluctuated around a rather low average. The intelligence quotient averages of the two groups were almost equal with only a slight advantage in favor of the Pasadena four year junior high-school students.



Special features of the junior high-school situation are of interest. In Compton Union Secondary-Schools district there are five elementary districts unionized for secondary-school purposes only. Each of these districts has a four-year junior high-school. A large saving is thus affected in transportation because more than fifty per cent of the old union high-school population was in the 9th and 10th grades. Now all of these 9th and 10 graders are near enough to their four-year junior high-schools to walk. Only the upper four-year students need to be transported under the new arrangement.

Also in Compton all foreign language study except two years of Latin has been eliminated so far as the junior high-schools are concerned. Modern foreign languages are all begun in the 11th grade or freshman year of the four year junior college. This policy resulted in a large saving, and places the foreign language study nearer to the point where it will function either in college preparation or cultural mastery as a leisure time pursuit. The shops in the Compton Junior High-Schools are all "general shops," doing industrial arts or exploratory work only. All Smith-Hughes and other vocational work is relegated to the four year junior college. The same is true for the commercial curriculum as well. Typewriting and junior business training are given in the junior high-schools but all specifically vocational commercial work is done in the junior college. In Compton there is no football or baseball in the junior high schools. Their physical education program is strictly intra-mural and intra-local system. The junior high-school athletic teams compete only within the Compton District. In Pasadena the competition is within the district but the junior high-schools have football and basketball teams which are now beginning to send up to the four year junior college some excellent material. This is rapidly solving one of the major student morale problems for the junior college. During the first four years of the 6-4-4 plan it was difficult for the 11th and 12th years to put out teams capable of competing with larger neighboring four year high-schools. During the fifth year, however, lower division teams have more than held their own.

In Ventura there is just one junior high-school to which all the 7th, 8th, 9th, and 10th grade students from several elementary districts outside of the city as well as those within the city are transported. This one junior high-school has over 1000 students and is able to carry out a complete program of activities and support a rich and varied program of study. As in the Compton situation all industrial arts exploratory work is done in the junior high-school and all specialized vocational work is taken care of in the junior college.

There is no question at all regarding the success of the four year junior high-schools in all three communities. They are going educational concerns and appear to be carrying out in a most satisfactory and efficient way the functions of the junior high-school is outlined by Koos, Briggs, Davis, Touton, and other educational specialists in that field.

The writer visited the junior high-schools in Pasadena and Ventura frequently and made personal contacts with students with a view to discovering their reactions to the situations existing in their respective schools. He found an unusually satisfactory student morale and marked evidence of satisfaction in their school work. There did not appear to be any serious problem of homegeneity arising out of the presence in the same school building of 7th and 10th grade students. The testimony of counselors and teachers both was to the effect that the three lower classes were stimulated to greater effort by the seriousness of purpose and the superior achievement of the older students.

The writer is satisfied that the four year junior high-school as illustrated by its tryout both at Pasadena and Ventura, as well as for the first semester's trial at Compton, is an educational success. In practice it has more than measured up to the claims made for it when the school boards of these three communities were persuaded to adopt the new type of administrative organization.

The upper four year units, or junior colleges, have certain features in common and differ also in minor details. In Compton and Ventura, for example, all of the specific voca-

tional courses in business, industrial, and semi-professional lines of all kinds are carried on in the junior college division. There is no vocational work as such in the junior high-schools. In Pasadena, however, there is a four year vocational school known as the Technical High-School, covering grades 9, 10, 11, and 12, which handles all vocational courses below the semi-professional or technical level. All Smith-Hughes work, and certain types of commercial work are provided for in this institution. While such a school cuts across the theoretical 6-4-4 plan, nevertheless it meets a distinct educational need in a city of the size of Pasadena. In small communities, such as Compton and Ventura, there would be no justification for such a school. Even in Pasadena, if the junior college population continues to increase at the same rate for the next four years as for the past four, the Muir Technical High-School may evolve into a specialized type of four-year junior college.

Recent tendencies in the economic world seem to indicate that the time for entering upon vocations is being postponed to later and later age levels. In 1917 when the Smith-Hughes bill was passed age 14 was assumed to be the ideal time to begin specialized training for an industrial vocation. The fixing of this age had in mind completion of the 8th grade. Practically all of the larger cities have, however, set the completion of the three year junior high-school, or grade 9 as the time to begin specialized vocational training. Now, in two of the three 6-4-4 cities of California completion of the 10th grade is made the condition for entering upon specialized vocational training. In California there is justification for such a policy on two grounds. First the state is predominantly a commercial and agricultural, rather than an industrial state. Second, the legal school leaving age, for those who have not already graduated from high-school, is sixteen and eighteen for those who have not graduated from high-school. The average age of low-tenth grade students in Pasadena and Ventura is fifteen years and eight months and of high-tenth grade students is sixteen years and three months. More than one half therefore of those who finish the 10th grade in these two cities are over sixteen years of age. If vocational oppor-

tunities are open they can get a job and attend the continuation school four hours a week up to age eighteen. If no vocational opportunities are available they can attend the junior college and take specialized vocational or semi-professional courses along the line of their interests and abilities. This arrangement allocates definitely to the four year junior high-school the general education function and the exploration function and to the junior college a continuation of the general or cultural education function and the specialized vocational function on the semi-professional and technical level, and also the pre-professional training function for those who will continue their education in the upper divisions of colleges and universities.

For the balance of the time at my disposal, I shall call your attention to some of the results of an intensive study of the situation in the Pasadena junior college in an effort to answer the question how does the four year junior college accomplish the functions usually expected of an institution of junior college rank. Or to put the question in a different way, does the addition of the 11th and 12th years to the 13th and 14th years make it easier or more difficult for the junior college to perform its regular functions? Also, is it more or less expensive in its operation than under a two year type of institution?

The Pasadena Junior College district was organized by vote of the people in 1924. Whether it should be on the 6-3-3-2 or the 6-4-4 basis was one of the issues in the election. The 6-4-4 type won a sound majority of the votes cast at this special election. It took four years to make the transition involving the building of some new junior high-schools designed to accommodate the 10th grade, and to alter the existing ones for the same purpose. In the autumn of the academic year 1928-1929 the complete shift had been made with all 10th grade students housed in the four junior high-schools. One new four-year junior high-school has been added since that time, making five in all.

The Pasadena junior college district has an area of 127 square miles, and an assessed valuation in 1931-32 of \$157,-

000,000. The administrative organization is a principal and four deans, —i. e. of men, of women, of records, and of guidance. There are twelve chairmen of departments, who, with the four deans make up the principal's council. This is the policy-forming body which helps to formulate and carry out the major matters of internal organization and control, subject in certain instances to final approval by the superintendent and board of education.

The junior college plant occupies a site of forty acres in a central location. There are seventeen buildings, which with equipment have a conservative valuation of \$2,000,000. Just recently a new group of technological laboratories have been added. These are splendidly equipped and give the junior college the best set-up in this line possessed by any junior college on the Pacific Coast.

Growth has been rapid. From an enrollment of 2664 in 1928-29, the first year as a four year institution, to 1931-32, the fourth year, it had grown to an enrollment of 4185 or an increase in enrollment of 57.0 per cent. The teaching staff increased from 133 in the first year mentioned to 165 in the fourth year, or 24.0 per cent. The growth in enrollment has been more rapid than the growth in teaching staff. In 1928-29 there was one teacher to each 20 students and in 1931-32 the ratio was one to 25.

Curriculum organization in the junior college is in the hand of a curriculum council which investigates the needs for new courses or for the revision of old courses. When new construction or revision is decided upon, committees are organized which work under the direction of the assistant superintendent of schools and the consultant supervision of Dr. L. T. Hopkins of Teachers College, Columbia University. Curricula are of three types: First, certificate or academic and pre-professional, to meet the needs of those students who expect to transfer to the upper divisions of the standard colleges and universities. Second, semi-professional and technological, or terminal, for those who expect to complete their training with the four year junior college course and desire to make at least preliminary training for some vocation above the

level of industrial trades and the beginning group of business and clerical vocations. Third. There are also a considerable number of non-vocational courses which for want of a better designation may be called terminal cultural courses, in music, art, literature, science, and social science. They do not meet the lower division requirements of the universities. They are not vocational in character, but they do continue the cultural and integrating training for social efficiency and the wholesome use of leisure time for those whose formal education ends with the fourteenth year. That these terminal cultural courses meet a real need is shown by the student enrollment in them, i. e. 36.3 per cent. In semi-professional technical and other terminal courses are found 16.0 per cent of the student enrollments and in certificate and pre-professional courses 48.7 per cent. This should be a sufficient answer to those junior college administrators who say that semi-professional, technical, and terminal cultural courses will not be elected by junior college students even if they are made available. It is the attitude of the administrators, faculty members and counselors which has everything to do with the success or failure of such courses.

In view of what has just been said it will be appropriate to discuss first the way in which the Pasadena Junior College performs its vocational training function. The city of Pasadena is predominantly a commercial and residential city. An occupational survey shows that the occupations employing the greatest number of workers are: business and clerical, domestic and personal service, manufacturing, building and mechanical industries, professional service, and agriculture (mostly market and landscape gardening). A study of the vocational interests of the students brought out the fact that 77.0 per cent of them had decided upon a life-work and that there was a steady increase in the percentage having definite vocational plans from the 11-1 classes to the 14-2 classes, nearly 90% of the latter having reached a decision in regard to vocational plans. An interesting sidelight on these ambitions, which is distinctively American, is the fact that only ten per cent of the junior college students plan to enter the same vocations with their fathers.



An analysis of the semi-professional technical, business and secretarial courses offered shows that reasonably complete preparation can be made in the Pasadena Junior College for fifty-one vocations, and partial preparation for twenty additional vocations. Comparing the occupational opportunities in the Los Angeles metropolitan area with the types of preparation available it is found that in normal times of employment, if such should eventually return, the junior college offerings are fairly well adjusted to the conditions as they were before the present economic disaster knocked all vocational planning into a "cocked-hat." Adjustments will have to be made to new conditions as they arise but the Pasadena Junior College has both the staff and the equipment to meet these changes.

The advantage of the four year organization in relation to the performing of the vocational training function of the junior college is that the various curricula have at least a three year span for specific training with the 11th grade organized as a finding and adjustment year. This means that students have a much better chance of knowing what vocation they want or should prepare for and a longer period of training under the guidance of the counselors and major department heads than could be possible in a two year institution where a part of one of the two years available would have to be devoted to adjustment. The four year junior college allows a whole year for adjustment and three years for specific training in the field finally chosen.

Another function which a junior college is supposed to perform is what is known as the social civic and community service function. In reference to its own students the social civic function is performed through the **general cultural and terminal cultural** courses offered and through the student activities which the students manage either entirely on their own initiative or under faculty sponsorship. What at first seemed to be a different problem, i. e. the amalgamation into a unified student body of upper division high-school students and lower division college students has been achieved to the point where there is a splendid morale and real unity of in-



terest and purpose. Student government is really functioning and regulations enacted by the students themselves are enforced by their officers, which if passed and imposed by the faculty would arouse fierce opposition. The most difficult situation arose in connection with the necessity of organizing lower and upper division teams to meet competition with four year high-schools and two year junior colleges. This situation is now being met because the four year junior high-schools are sending up such promising material that the lower division teams can compete on even terms with the large four year high-schools of Los Angeles and vicinity and the upper division can hold its own with the large two year junior colleges. The entire student body backs all teams loyally in their competition. Again it is the four year span which makes for continuity in student activity and enables the student with qualities of leadership to first discover himself and then to find opportunities for the exercise of his talents. Wise and sympathetic leadership by the Deans of men, women, and guidance is a material factor in the success achieved along social-civic lines.

The community service phase of the four year junior college is shown by the fact that a very high percentage of faculty members render service in social clubs, churches, service clubs, and all manner of civil welfare enterprises. Many lectures and entertainments are open to the public without charge. Many facilities in the way of meeting rooms, auditoria, and physical education grounds and equipment are used by civic organizations. A splendid adult education program in which a majority of those who attend classes have the equivalent of high-school education, is being generously patronized by Pasadena citizens. There is no disposition to claim that similar services are not being rendered to their respective communities by the two year junior colleges. These facts are simply presented to show that the Pasadena Junior College is closely identified with its community life and is accorded a place in its community higher than that which it would occupy if it were merely a "glorified high-school" as some claimed to believe a four year junior college would become.

The isthmian or preparatory function in preparation for continued work in higher institutions is also being well performed. Studies conducted by Dr. Merton E. Hill, Director of Admissions of the University of California, show that of 556 graduates of the Pasadena Junior College who have attended the seven institutions having Phi Beta Kappa chapters, only 2.2 per cent have earned marks of "E" or "F" and only 8.4 per cent have earned marks of "D", the lowest passing mark in these institutions. Another study which compared the marks earned in particular subjects when subjects in the same field were taken in the upper divisions of colleges showed: In eleven such subject fields out of sixteen the preparation was found to be good, in three just fair, and in only two subjects was it found to be below par. Compared with students who had taken all of their work in the two divisions of the state university the Pasadena Junior College transfers made scholarship ratios of 1.25 as against 1.30 for the "native sons". Considering the element of adjustment when transferring to another institution, this is an excellent showing. The isthmian or preparatory function is likewise being well taken care of. If it is a glorified high-school its graduates are conferring upon it still more glory.

Another recognized function of the junior college is the guidance function. This service was rendered in 1931-1932 by a Dean of Guidance and seven full-time counselors, under the general direction of a supervisor of guidance from the superintendent's office. Due to the excellent guidance set-up, Pasadena was selected by Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver as one of the five cities in the United States to be studied under a subvention from the Carnegie Foundation, in relation to the outcomes of guidance. The results of that study are not yet available but a group of outside guidance experts were asked to score the Pasadena situation on a score-card devised by the writer which had been used in a number of other cities. These judges gave Pasadena's guidance service a score of 758 out of a possible 1000, which is the highest score yet given on that particular measuring device for cities the size of Pasadena. It was found that the counselors gave 73 per cent of their time to student interviews, 2 per cent to group guidance,

13 per cent to office administrative duties, and 12 per cent to committee, faculty and other types of meetings. In the fall of 1931 the counseling group asked to have forty students who had been dropped at the end of the previous semester, reinstated as an experiment in the effects of counseling on student achievement. Thirty-two of the forty accepted the opportunity offered. At the end of the first semester twenty of the thirty-two had been fully reinstated and seven conditionally reinstated. Only five had failed to make good. If this is a fair sample of the quality of guidance service it is safe to say that the guidance function is being scientifically performed.

It is sometimes claimed that the four year unit brings together non-homogeneous groups of students because the span is too long. A study of this problem was made by Dr. Herbert Popenoe of the Menlo School and Junior College, which is operating an eight year secondary-school on a four-four basis. The height, weight, and chronological age records of 14,000 children, grades 5 to 14 in Riverside, which is on the 6-3-3-2 basis, and Pasadena and Ventura both on 6-4-4 basis, were studied to get at physiological maturity. Dr. Popenoe, who worked out statistically an index of homogeneity, found that in physical maturity there is a distinct break between the 6th and 7th grades; that between the 7th and 14th grades there are several small breaks which might be made the basis for separating the eight years into either two or three units. One of these smaller breaks is between the 9th and 10th and the other between the 10th and 11th. Between the 12th and 13th grades, however, where the traditional break occurs between the four year high school and the college comes, he found no break at all. Between the 12th and 13th grades there is the greatest degree of homogeneity to be found all the way from the 5th through the 14th. In putting these two grades with the 11th and 14th to make a four year institution, there is no more violation of the principle of homogeneity than in grouping grades 9 to 12, or 13 to 16, inclusive in the traditional four year high-school or the four year standard college. In other words, the actual educational and social advantages found in the two four-year units of the Pasadena system, in addition to the findings of the homogeneity study,

seem to outweigh the supposed theoretical disadvantages of lack of homogeneity.

A final consideration has to do with the costs. The cost per unit of A.D.A. in 1928-29 was \$271.00. The cost per similar unit in 1931-32 was \$180.00, a reduction of 33.5 per cent in four years. The depression has stimulated sharp reductions in all junior college costs, but the point is that Pasadena has been able to make its reductions up to the present with very slight cutting down in services rendered to students. Overlapping courses between the 11th and 12th years and the 13th and 14th have been almost entirely eliminated and as soon as the universities remove some ancient restrictions, still others can be removed. The unified departmental organization makes it easier to maintain classes of more nearly uniform size and to avoid expensive duplications. Likewise, the counseling staff which utilizes grade 11 as an adjustment year tends to reduce failures and forestall wasteful shifts and changes in student programs.

In what has been said thus far there has been no effort to set forth the four year junior college as the only type of junior college worthy of consideration. On the contrary the writer is personally familiar with a number of situations where the 6-3-3-2 organization is for those districts the superior type of organization. In another district, i. e. Salinas, an 8-3-3 plan is being operated with excellent results.

What it has been our purpose in this paper to show is that for Pasadena, Ventura, and Compton where the 6-4-4 has been in operation, for five, three, and one years respectively, it has been a marked success. No student has suffered the loss of an educational advantage which would have been his under an 8-4-2 or a 6-3-3-2 plan. The elementary grades have not been robbed for the sake of the secondary program, and in every case economies have been effected which made possible material reductions in cost. The conclusion seems reasonable that in these three communities of which the writer has intimate personal knowledge and in two of which he has made careful studies of the outcomes, the 6-4-4 organization is no longer an

experiment but a going educational concern. These systems are not trying to make converts to their way of doing things but they are convinced that for their particular circumstances they have found the most satisfactory administrative and educational solution of an important problem.

## RESEARCH SECTION

The Research Section met under the chairmanship of Charles H. Judd, Dean of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, Wednesday, March 1, 2:00 P. M., Leamington Hotel Ballroom.

C. C. Weidemann, Director of Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, read his paper.

### A SOCIAL SITUATION JUDGMENTS TEST— FORM 1 (Experimental)

A. A. REED

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C. C. WEIDEMANN,

Teachers College, University of Nebraska,  
Lincoln, Nebraska.

#### I. Introduction.

This test purports to measure information acquired, concerning what should be the behavior for the individual confronted with a social situation principle or a principle applied to a social situation demanding judgment, decision, or action or combinations of these upon the part of that individual. In this field only a few tests at the high-school and lower years of college level have been constructed. The first such test noted was published by Hill<sup>1</sup> and Wilson<sup>1</sup>. From their suggestions and prime materials collected by the authors, a Social Situation

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<sup>1</sup>Hill, Howard C., and Wilson, Howard E., *A Test in Civic Action*.  
Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company.

Judgments test—Form 1 (experimental) consisting of 70 items was prepared and published in 1929. Experiences with this form to date are reported in this paper. In the near future the authors will publish a second and more extensive form consisting of similar materials.

Three selected examples of test items contained in the test follow.

1. The importance of a mother's instruction to-day is greater in case of a girl than that of either father or mother in the case of a boy.
2. Suitor: "What is your fortune, my pretty maid?"  
Maid: "My face is my fortune, sir".

What is my attitude toward her reply?

3. John and two friends were studying in the living room. John's mother came in. The three boys arose. John said, "Fellows, this is my mother". John's friends said, "I am pleased to meet you".
  - a. John was entirely courteous to his mother.
  - b. The two friends were entirely courteous to John's mother.

## II. Statement and Directions Preceding the Test.

The test is preceded by the following statements and directions:

You are to understand that your answers to the following situations and statements are to represent your personal attitudes and judgments independent of what you may think the attitudes and judgments of either your friends or acquaintances might be.

Directions: In the space to the left, mark the statement with a

- 1 if you believe the statement is entirely *Right*.
- 2 if you believe the statement is quite probably *Right*.
- 3 if you believe the statement is doubtful as to whether *Right* or *Wrong*.

4 if you believe the statement is quite probably *Wrong*.

5 if you believe the statement is entirely *Wrong*.

That the preceding statements and directions apparently were clear is evidenced by the consistency of the distribution of students' responses to each test item, presented below (See Tables 1 and 2).

### III. Illustrations of Distributions of Student Responses to Selected Test Items.

Table 1 presents certain test items and the per cent of student responses within each of the five divisions of the decision scale from entirely right to entirely wrong.

The many interpretations possible to these few items indicate the opportunities for fruitful discussions during class periods on these items and the remaining content of the test. Such indeterminate<sup>2</sup> material is useful for classroom use in connection with civic, citizenship, moral, and character education study.

Space does not permit the inclusion of the interesting distributions of student responses to the other test items.

### IV. Consistency<sup>3</sup> of the Distribution of Student Responses with Teachers College Freshmen, November, 1930.

The 261 cases were divided into Group A of 122 cases and Group B of 139 cases. The distribution of responses on the 5-point decision scale was computed for each of the 70 items for each of the two groups. For example, in test item number 35—

TABLE 1

Per Cent Responses of Each of Two Student Groups to Selected Social Situation Judgments Test Items.

<sup>2</sup>Weidemann, C. C. "The Relative Classroom Discussion Value of the Determinate and the Indeterminate Statement," *Journal of Educational Method*, March, 1932.

<sup>3</sup>"Consistency" is a term more descriptive than the term "reliability".



TEST ITEM	Number of Teachers		Per cent of Student Responses on the Decision Scale for each Test Item				
	College Students		En- tire- ly Right	Prob- ably Right	Doubtful as to whether Right or Wrong	Prob- ably Wrong	En- tire- ly Wrong
	Answering as of November	Answering as of January					
	1930	1933	1	2	3	4	5
14. If telling the truth hurts another person's feelings, tell a lie.	259		2	11	22	18	46
		191	37	40	13	6	4
17. Mutual trust is a sound basis on which to build our social structure.	258		27	44	20	5	4
		187	23	47	21	9	0
32. "Putting yourself in the other fellow's place" is an aid to many a successful deal with the other fellow.	261		72	17	4	4	3
		192	59	29	8	3	1
25. A broad-minded individual is usually quicker to act than one who is narrow-minded.	261		24	16	17	19	24
		192	14	24	12	28	22
62. Clyde likes to drink whiskey. On a certain evening he went to a party with a mixed group of boys and girls. George offered Clyde a drink from a hip-pocket flask containing whiskey, in the presence of the other members of the group. The other members of the group were also asked to take a drink and all accepted the invitation. Under the foregoing circumstances, Clyde was justified in taking a drink of whiskey.	260		10	8	5	12	65
		191	5	16	7	15	57

\*University of Nebraska—Test materials administered by Dr. W. H. Thompson in Education 30, Sections I to VI inclusive.

<sup>b</sup>University of Nebraska—Test materials administered by Dr. S. M. Corey to Education 30, Sections I to VI inclusive.

"Everybody is doing it", is a phrase which tends to increase the amount of uncritical acceptance of an idea—the distribution of responses were for

GROUP	DECISION SCALE				
	1	2	3	4	5
A*	62	30	14	10	3
B	80	39	10	8	2

Then the Pearson-r correlation coefficients between groups A and B, with the number of test items equal to 70 were computed for each of the 5 points of the decision scale. The results are included in Table 2.

The consistency is generally high. In the region of *doubtful as to whether right or wrong*, the consistency is lowest and increases outward toward the extremes of either *entirely right* or *entirely wrong*.

The consistency coefficients of the November, 1930, Teachers College Freshmen were checked by the January, 1933, Teachers College Freshmen students. (See Table 2). The values of the coefficients are practically the same for the latter group. It should be noted that consistency of response within either group does not include the consistency of response between the 1930 and 1933 groups of students. For example, Table 1, test item 14 shows almost complete reversal of the viewpoint between the two groups, yet the consistency of response between the sub-groups A and B, respectively within either the 1930 or 1933 groups of students was high. The consistency coefficients of response between the 1930 and 1933 groups of students for each of the 5 points on the decision scale are also given in Table 2. These values are not so high as the preceding yet reveal the same tendency to show high consistency at the extremes of the decision scale and lower consistency at the mid-region of the scale.

#### V. Development of a Scoring Key for the Social-Situation Judgments Test.

A key for such a test is constructed on a social group response basis. It is proper to say that the scoring key for the

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\*3 cases omitted the item.

TABLE 2

The Consistency Coefficients between Group A and B for Each of the 5 Points of the Decision Scale with the 70 items of the Test for Both Groups of Teachers College Freshmen; also the November, 1930, Freshmen compared to the January, 1933, Freshmen.

STUDENT GROUPS	The consistency coefficient for each division of the Decision Scale based on the 70 items of the test from				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Entirely Right	Probably Right	Doubtful as to Whether Right or Wrong	Probably Wrong	Entirely Wrong
Teachers College Freshman, November 1930	0.98	0.87	0.85	0.93	0.97
Teachers College Freshmen, January 1933	0.96	0.86	0.84	0.94	0.97
Teachers College Freshmen, November, 1930, correlated with those of January, 1933	0.91	0.83	0.87	0.93	0.95

1930 Teachers College student group would probably differ from the key for the 1933 Teachers College group. Furthermore, a scoring key for use in Nebraska might vary widely from a key usable in New York State, Texas, California, or Canada. It must be recognized that such factors as time, place, customs, educational indoctrination, etc., necessarily change the distribution of responses to any or all test items within such a test. The magnitudes of such possible variations are as yet only little known to the authors (See Table 2, row 3).

The essential steps in building such a key follow.

1. Reduce the per cent of distribution of response to each test item to either a 10 or 5 point scoring basis.

Example:

	Per cent distribution at each of the divisions of the decision scale.				
	1	2	3	4	5
Test Item 1—(Snobbishness is vulgar).....	36	30	12	7	12
Reduced to a 10-point scoring basis.....	4	3	1	1	1
5-point scoring basis....	2	2	1	0	0

- Determine the total per cent of the distribution of responses included when the 5-point basis of scoring is used.

Example: For Item 1, the total per cent is 78.

- As an arbitrary criterion, try to include in the 5-point basis of scoring a total per cent of responses never less than 75.
- Occasionally the per cent distribution of responses will be about uniform for each of the 5 divisions of the decision scale. *Do not discard the item.* Such an item usually is very controversial and valuable for the purpose of class discussion. Since any response to the item scores one point on each and every one of the 5 divisions of the decision scale, differentiation in score between individual students on such an item does not result. *This fact is an essential difference between the key derived on a social basis, and the key constructed on an individual or teacher basis.* It should be observed that the very controversial item is retained, although it may not have power to differentiate between pupils. In addition to the educational value of the item, a second reason for retaining such an item is the fact that a very large group of distributed responses might ultimately reveal some tendency of the item to carry a heavier scoring value at some point rather than at some other point on the decision scale.

Example:

a. See Table 1, item 25.

b. Item 67—A hostess to a group of twenty young men and women provided a smoking room in which had been placed many kinds of cigarettes. Only one boy and two girls of the entire group did not avail themselves of the courtesy offered. The hostess should not have provided the opportunity to smoke as a feature of her social program of the evening.

		Decision Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
Teachers	Distribution of per cent	18	15	17	21	29
College	of responses to item 67:					
Freshmen	10-point scoring basis	2	2	2	2	3*
November	5-point scoring basis	1	1	1	1	2**
1930						
Teachers	Distribution of per cent	12	20	16	26	26
College	of responses to item 67:					
Freshmen	10-point scoring basis	1	2	2	3	3*
January	5-point scoring basis	0	1	1	2	2**
1933						

In this example the scoring key for the 1930 group is almost the same throughout the decision scale. For the 1933 group the scoring key for the same item is slightly on the side of wrong of the decision scale. It seems that even though the scoring key were equally weighted throughout the decision scale, the item 67 should be retained in the test.

#### VI. The Distribution of Per Cent Response Included in the

##### Scoring Key for Each of the 70 Items of the Test.

Table 3 presents the per cent distribution of the responses of the November, 1930, group of 261 students, included for each of the 70 items of the test. Then mean per cent is 88. The standard deviation is 5.2 per cent. The range of per cents is from 76 to 98 and includes never less than 75 per cent of the group of 261 students. Almost nine-tenths of the group of students on the average were used as a social basis to construct the scoring key.

\*In each case the points total 11 when carried to the nearest whole number.

\*\*In each case the points total 6 instead of 5.

TABLE 3

Distribution in Per cent of the Responses of 261 Teachers College Freshmen, November, 1930, Included as a Basis to Establish the Scoring Key for Each of the 70 items of the test.

Class Intervals of Per Cent—Frequency of Items—Computed Values*		
75— 79	4	Mean—88.2 per cent. Standard Deviation—5.2 per cent Range—76 to 98 per cent
80— 84	11	
85— 89	26	
90— 94	23	
95—100	6	
Total Items	70	

#### VII. Consistency of the Test

The consistency coefficient of the test was determined with four different groups of students. Table 4 indicates the median coefficient to be 0.81. The range is from 0.74 to 0.83.

Considering the fact that the test is only 70 items in length, the consistency is good. If the test were 140 items long, the consistency would be around 0.90. The validity of the test 70 items in length may be as high as .90. The actual validity is not known.

#### VIII. Correlation of the Social Situation Judgments Test with Intelligence.

The correlation of the social situation judgments test with

1. Ohio Intelligence—Form 17<sup>4</sup>, 260 cases was  $0.16 \pm 0.04$ .
2. Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability. High-school Examination—Form C<sup>5</sup>, 90 cases was  $0.17 \pm 0.07$ .

\*These values were computed with the ungrouped data.

<sup>4</sup>The basic data were collected in November, 1930, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Education 30, Sections I-VI, instructor, Dr. W. H. Thompson.

<sup>5</sup>The basic data were collected in May, 1930, by Prof. Charles Fordyce and Prof. A. A. Reed from selected high school seniors in Nebraska.

These results would indicate that the social situation judgments test measures mental functions not measured by the intelligence tests (See Section X).

IX. Correlation of the Social Situation Judgments<sup>6</sup> Test with the English Classification Examination<sup>7</sup>.

The correlation of the social situation judgments test with the English classification Examination, Form 1<sup>8</sup> was  $0.30 \pm 0.04$ ;  $n$  being 260. This result indicates that the social situation judgments test measures mental functions not measured by the English classification Examination (See Section XI).

<sup>6</sup>The basic data were collected by Dr. W. H. Thompson; see Section VIII.

<sup>7</sup>The basic data were collected by Dr. R. D. Scott and the authors from high school graduates who entered as freshmen in the Teachers College, University of Nebraska, September, 1930.

<sup>8</sup>Scott, R. D., Reed, A. A. and Weidemann, C. C. "English Classification Examination," Form 1, published by Extension Division, University of Nebraska, 1928.



TABLE 4

Consistency of the Social Situation Judgments Test.

Type of Student Group	Number of Cases	Consistency Coefficient
High School Seniors	92	0.83
Sampled Group of Teachers College Freshmen	100	0.80
Teachers College Freshmen, November, 1930	261	0.74
Teachers College Freshmen, January, 1933	192	0.82

## X. Community of Function of the Social Situation Judgments Test With Intelligence.

The phrase, community of function, defined by Kelley<sup>9</sup>, describes (1) the degree to which two different tests measure the same mental functions; and (2) the degree to which each of the two different tests measure mental functions not measured by the other test.

<sup>9</sup>Kelley, Truman Lee. "Interpretation of Educational Measurements," World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1927. pp. 21, 193-6, 202-9.

The following data were used as a basis to determine the community of function per cent value:

consistency coefficient of the Social Situation Judgments test: 0.81.

consistency coefficient of the Ohio Intelligence test—Form 17<sup>10</sup>: 0.94.

consistency coefficient of the Otis intelligence test—Form C<sup>11</sup>: .86.

The correlations of the judgments test with intelligence is given in Section VIII.

The community of function, therefore, of the Social Situation Judgments test with

(1) Ohio Intelligence, Form 17 is approximately 19 per cent.

and (2) Otis Intelligence, Form C<sup>12</sup> is approximately 21 per cent.

On the average, 20 per cent of the mental functions measured by the intelligence tests are also measured by the Social Situation Judgments test. About 80 per cent of the mental functions measured by the Social Situation Judgments test are not measured by the intelligence tests. About 80 per cent of the mental functions measured by the intelligence tests are not measured by the Social Situation Judgments test.

In a general battery of tests, it is good to recommend that a Social Situation Judgments test be used in addition to an intelligence test.

<sup>10</sup>Toops, H. A., reports by correspondence, the reliability of Form 17 to be 0.94—letter dated, February 13, 1933.

<sup>11</sup>Otis, Arthur, reports by correspondence the reliability of Forms A and B to be 0.921. Since Form C is similar he believes the same value may be safely used—letter dated February 14, 1931.

<sup>12</sup>If the reliability coefficient (0.921) suggested by Otis is used instead of 0.86, the community of function per cent value becomes 20 instead of 21.

### XI. Community of Function of the Social Situation Judgments Test with the English Classification Examination.

The following data were used as a basis to determine the community of function per cent value:

consistency coefficient of the English Classification Examination, Form 1: 0.92.

consistency coefficient of the Social Situation Judgments test: 0.81.

The correlation of the Social Situation Judgments test with the English classification Examination is  $0.30 \pm 0.04$ ;  $n$  being 260.

The community of function, therefore, between the judgments and English tests is approximately 35 per cent.

About 35 per cent of the mental functions measured by the English Classification Examination are also measured by the Social Situation Judgments test. About 65 per cent of mental functions measured by the Social Situation Judgments test are not measured by the English test. About 65 per cent of the mental functions measured by the English test are not measured by the Social Situation Judgments test.

In a general battery of tests, it is good to recommend that a Social Situation Judgments test be used in addition to the English Classification Examination.

### XII. Community of Function of the English Classification Examination, Form I, and Ohio Intelligence Test, Form 17.

Since the data are available the community of function between the English test and the Ohio Intelligence was computed and found to be approximately 50 per cent. The correlation between the two tests was  $0.46 \pm 0.04$ .

### XIII. Conclusions.

1. The content of the test is useful for the purpose of class-room discussion.

2. The consistency of judgment responses for both the 1930 and 1933 groups of Teachers College freshmen is high for the test as a unit.
3. The development of a scoring key for the test utilized a social basis of not less than 75% of a given group for any one test item.
4. On the basis of the scoring key used the median consistency coefficient of the test is .81.
5. Although the validity may be as high as .90, its actual value is not known.
6. Correlation of the Social Situation Judgments test with intelligence is very low, with a value of .16.
7. Correlation of the Social Situation Judgments test with the English Classification Examination is also relatively low with a value of .30.
8. Approximately 20% of the mental functions measured by the intelligence tests is also measured by the Social Situation Judgments test.
9. Approximately 80% of the mental functions measured by the intelligence tests is not measured by the Social Situation Judgments test.
10. Approximately 80% of the mental functions measured by the Social Situation Judgments test is not measured by the intelligence test.
11. Approximately 36% of the mental functions measured by the English Classification Examination is also measured by the Social Situation Judgments test.
12. Approximately 65% of the mental functions measured by the English Classification Examination is not measured by the Social Situation Judgments test.
13. Approximately 65% of the mental functions measured by the Social Situation Judgments test is not measured by the English Classification Examination.

14. In a general battery of tests, aim to measure as wide a range of abilities as possible. It is recommended that a social situation judgments test be included in addition to an intelligence test and an English composition test.

Galen Jones, Assistant Superintendent in charge of Secondary-Schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma, read the following paper:

### THE STATUS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY

GALEN JONES,  
Assistant Superintendent of Schools,  
Tulsa, Oklahoma

Chairman, Committee on Investigations,  
Department of Secondary-School Principals  
of the Oklahoma Education Association

Previous to December 2, 1931, the secondary-school principals of Oklahoma were organized only as a section of the Oklahoma Education Association. The president for that year was Mr. Charlie E. Forbes of Thomas, Oklahoma. He had the vision of the secondary-school principals' section becoming the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the Oklahoma Education Association and definitely affiliated with the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association. He organized the necessary committees and did the promotion work which resulted in the organization of the new department.

The fact that the principals were stimulated to a reconsideration of their professional opportunities and responsibilities because of this reorganization, made it possible for a genuine consideration of a program of professional study. It was agreed that the new department should not be content to devote its conferences only to talks and discussions, but that the department should initiate professional studies and carry them through to definite conclusions. In order to bring this decision forward, the president was authorized to appoint a

committee on investigations. This committee was charged with the responsibility of outlining an investigation for consideration and approval at the state meeting on February 2, 1932. It chanced that the chairman of the Committee on Investigations had received the suggestions for studies submitted by the Committee on Investigations of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association. He had received twelve mimeographed outlines of suggested studies, each of which was considered by our state committee. Among the suggestions was one of Professor Douglas Waples of the University of Chicago which raised some fifteen questions concerning the high-school library. The committee chose to pursue the library problem. The committee on investigations as set up for this study was composed of four high-school principals, the chief high-school inspector, the secretary of the Oklahoma Library Commission and an assistant superintendent in charge of secondary-schools. At the first meeting of the committee, the fifteen questions raised by Professor Waples were assigned three each to five people. These five members of the Committee on Investigations became in turn chairmen of sub-committees. The personnel of the sub-committees was selected and appointed by the committee as a whole. Two steps were taken at this time to facilitate the work of the sub-committees: First, the committees secured the cooperation of some forty people in formulating the purposes of the high-school library. They agreed on five general purposes and seven specific purposes as follows:

*General—*

1. To acquire and organize library material for school service. (i. e. Books accessioned, classified, cataloged, with good charging system.)
2. To provide reference and enrichment material for each subject in the curriculum. (i. e. Dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlas, Readers' Guide, Who's Who, World Almanac, Vertical file, Clipping file, Picture file, etc.)

3. To select and provide reading collateral to school course in addition to material designated by course of study. (i. e. At least ten volumes per pupil, magazines, government bulletins, periodicals.)
4. To provide material for all extra-curriculum activities. (i. e. Athletics, social, musical, dramatic, esthetic, and vocational.)
5. To provide training in the use of reference books for independent research, thus opening hidden resources of public, school, and college libraries. (i. e. instruction of pupils in the accepted methods of classifying and organizing reference material.)

*Specific—*

1. To inspire a love for books and reading through pleasant contact. (i. e. Room well equipped for purpose—not a study hall. Orderly arrangement of clean well-kept books.)
2. To serve as a center for literary and cultural activities of the student body through personal guidance of the librarian. (i. e. Library clubs, reading courses, literary appreciation hours, and browsing rooms.)
3. To provide access to books, not found in the average home or elsewhere within the reach of the student. (i. e. Travel, exploration, biography, social, and political economy, poetry.)
4. To furnish guidance for cultural growth and mental recreation for leisure hours of students. (i. e. Masterpieces in all fields of pure literature, books of vocational and technical literature; books on hobbies, various kinds of collections, etc.)
5. To develop vocational tendencies and aptitudes through books (i. e. Mechanical, scientific, useful arts, fine arts, and trade literature.)
6. To foster and develop intellectual interests roused by classroom activities. (i. e. History, social and political science, natural history, etc.)



7. To stimulate professional and cultural reading on the part of the teacher. (i. e. Book reviews, educational journals, Reading with a purpose courses, avocations and recreational materials.)

They further agreed on definitions of library science terminology. Finally they determined the nature of the inquiry form which was to be made up in four parts: *a.* a section which would survey present practices; *b.* a survey of our present philosophy pertaining to the function and use of the library; *c.* the listing of obstacles which are met in bringing practices up to the philosophy; and *d.* the recording of ways in which obstacles may be overcome.

Samples of the form in which the inquiry book should finally appear were sent to each member of the committee and sub-committees. Section six of the final survey book is herewith submitted to indicate the type of instructions which were sent to the sub-committee.

County----- Dist No.----- School----- Post Office-----

## PRACTICE

## PHILOSOPHY

		VI. DISTRIBUTION OF LIBRARY FUNDS AMONG DEPARTMENTS					Indispensable	Very Desirable	Satisfactory	Undesirable	Detrimental
YES	NO										
		1. Are funds distributed to departments on a percentage basis?									
**	**	2. What factors determine amounts assigned to departments:					*	*	*	*	*
		a. Enrollments?									
		b. Demands made by subject requirements?									
		c. Stimulus given to recreational reading?									
**	**	3. By whom is the assignment of percentages made:					*	*	*	*	*
		a. Superintendent?									
		b. Principal?									
		c. Librarian?									
		d. Department heads?									
		e. Committee?									
		4. Give total amount spent for library (books, periodicals, equipment, supplies, binding, repair, etc.) during the school years:									
		1928-29 \$----- 1929-30 \$-----									
		1930-31 \$----- 1931-32 \$-----									
		1932-33 \$-----									
		5. What was the amount spent per pupil enrolled during the school years:									
		1928-29 \$----- 1929-30 \$-----									
		1930-31 \$----- 1931-32 \$-----									
		1932-33 \$-----									
		6. Approximately what percentage of the demand on your library is met by present expenditures?-----%									

Answered by-----  
 (Title) (Name)

OBSTACLES: -----

REMEDIES:

The sub-committees submitted detailed items which they felt should be surveyed in connection with the various phases of the problem of the high-school library. Eventually after six all day meetings of the committee on investigations a tentative form of the questionnaire was mimeographed early in June, 1932. This consisted of ten sections as follows:

- I. Purposes of the high-school library
- II. Personnel
- III. Location, size, and equipment of library
- IV. Source of book supply.
- V. Distribution of library funds among departments
- VI. Holdings—How nearly adequate is present collection?
- VII. Criteria and method of book selection
- VIII. Efforts to stimulate voluntary reading
- IX. Co-operation between teachers and librarian
- X. Pupil participation in library management.

The criticisms of this tentative draft were secured from at least six institutions of higher learning including competent critics at the University of Minnesota, Ohio State University, and Peabody College for Teachers. Early in September, 1932, the Committee on Investigations met for two days to consider the suggestions which had been accumulated over the summer, and to draft the final form which was to be used in making the survey. The final form included the following sections:

- I. The status and purposes of the high-school library
- II. Personnel
- III. Location, size, and equipment of library
- IV. Organization of supervised routine work
- V. Source of book supply

- VI. Distribution of library funds among departments
- VII. Criteria and method of book selection
- VIII. Efforts to stimulate voluntary reading
- IX. Cooperation between teachers and librarians.

The published questionnaire required sixteen pages plus the five page introduction. This was printed at a cost of one hundred twenty dollars for twelve hundred copies. The printing was completed early in November.

At a meeting early in October, 1932, the Committee on Investigations agreed upon a plan of securing the coöperation of high-school principals. A letter describing the study was sent to principals of all high-schools on the approved list of the State Department of Public Instruction of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools. This letter included a return card on which the principal indicated his willingness or unwillingness to participate in the study. Favorable responses were returned from two hundred sixty of the four hundred fifty high-schools. The printed form went forward to these schools early in November. The completed questionnaires were to be returned by December 23, 1932.

Originally, it was planned to have the data from various sections of the study distributed to four or five graduate students of library science for interpretation as a part of their work in connection with the securing of an advanced degree. However, when the returns began to come in it became apparent that such procedure would cause considerable delay in making the findings available to those concerned. The Committee on Investigations appealed to the officers of the Department of Secondary-School Principals for some means of financing a more direct treatment of the data. It was estimated that it would require approximately five hundred dollars to complete the study in a satisfactory way. This amount has now been raised. Two hundred dollars has come as a subsidy from some dozen publishing companies who are inter-

ested in the study and the balance is being raised as donations from about fifty of the high-schools of the state.

The follow-up work in seeing that the inquiry pamphlets are returned has just been completed and satisfactory returns are available from one hundred fifty schools. The questionnaire pamphlets are being checked by a specialist in library science for accuracy and coded for transfer of the data to the Hollerith cards. This will require the punching of twelve hundred cards and approximately thirty-six runs through the Hollerith Tabulating Machines. The clerical service for punching the cards and the machine runs will cost one hundred sixty dollars. The rest of the cost will go to pay for the services of the substitute for the individual who does the interpreting and writing up of the findings of the printing. We hope to have the report ready for publication before the end of this school year.

In the absence of G. N. Kefauver, Mr. H. C. Hand read their paper, entitled *An Appraisal of Programs of Guidance in Secondary-Schools*.

## AN APPRAISAL OF PROGRAMS OF GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY-SCHOOLS

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER

Acting Professor of Education  
Stanford University

and

HAROLD C. HAND

Instructor in Secondary Education  
Teachers' College, Columbia University

### Guidance Programs Introduced to Serve Definite Needs.

Guidance programs have been introduced in secondary-schools because of clear indications that the existing program of education did not provide adequately for certain problems met by students. Traditionally, the secondary-school has been

concerned almost exclusively with the teaching function. It became obvious, however, that much instruction was of little benefit either to the individual or to society because many students were receiving instruction in fields little related to their capacities, interests, and probable future activities and that many students were unable to make the most use of their training and were unhappy because of personal and social maladjustments. Also, the chance distributions of workers brought about an over-supply in some fields of work and an inadequate supply in others. The program of guidance has been concerned with the elimination or the reduction in the maldistribution and maladjustment of students while they are in school and after they leave school.

Further analysis of the problems associated with the distribution and adjustment of students will help to make clear what is supposed to result from a well-balanced program of guidance. Many students have inaccurate conceptions of their abilities; some think themselves to be brighter than they are while others rate themselves too low. Many of them have formulated educational plans not in harmony with their actual abilities. Some individuals do not plan as extended a program of education as their respective capacities would warrant. Some students choose subjects and curriculums in which they are practically certain to meet with failure. Many have not made plans concerning the activities they will carry on after leaving school and many have not even given serious thought concerning them. Many of those with such plans have not selected for themselves activities in harmony with their respective abilities. Since students have not accurately conceived their capacities, many of them have plans and are engaged in activities which draw on abilities which they do not possess in largest measure, leaving unused or only partially used abilities in which they could excel most.

Many of the plans concerning future educational and future vocational activities are not based on a thorough understanding of the requirements and conditions of work. Rather, the socially preferred occupations and the upper levels of education are often chosen for the social recognition asso-

ciated with them. In the vocational field, this tendency results in an improper distribution of workers and in people applying themselves at occupations for which they are not fitted. In the social-civic and recreational fields, the opportunities for participation are not limited so that interests and capacities become the determining factors. In these fields, many students are without plans and interests, while others have plans that cannot be satisfied because of lack of capacity.

Students are inadequately informed about the opportunities from which choices might be made. They are inadequately informed about occupations except for the occupations they have chanced to know at first hand. They are likely to generalize too much from the few contacts they have had. They are inadequately informed about the factors that should be considered in the choice of an occupation, and they frequently attach excessive significance to certain of the factors and ignore others.

Students are inadequately informed about the subjects and curriculums in the secondary-school. They frequently choose subjects with little conception of what they are taking and see little relationship between the subjects and the things to which they attach value. Consequently, many students are indifferent to the assignments given to them. They are likely to choose subjects for superficial reasons and fail to secure a well-balanced program with appropriate emphasis on the preparation for the social-civic, recreational, health, and vocational activities. Many of them choose learning activities beyond their respective capacities and avoid subjects that would be of value to them because of the social recognition associated with enrollment in certain fields.

Many of the students in the secondary-school are not attaining an optimum adjustment. These individuals are not working up to capacity, frequently have feelings of inferiority, and sometimes suffer with fears and periods of depression. Many of these maladjusted individuals later develop into more serious cases. It is believed that identification and treatment when the first evidences of maladjustment appear may prevent more serious later disturbances.



### **Objective Measures of Effects of Guidance Service Needed**

Guidance procedures have been developed and used in secondary-schools to take care of the problems referred to above. The programs vary from city to city and from school to school. Two questions may well be raised by one who canvasses programs of guidance now in operation. First, are certain programs more effective than others in achieving the objectives of guidance? Every person who adopts or recommends some program is forced to make a choice. If one type of program is better than another, objective evidence of that superiority would furnish a better basis for choice and lead to more universal adoption of the program with demonstrated superiority. Second, are any of the existing programs of guidance adequate to bring about proper distribution and adjustment of students? Or, if all maldistribution and maladjustment are not corrected, to what extent have they been removed? All existing programs may be inadequate. The problems comprehended by guidance are too important both for the individual and for society to continue a program of service unchecked.

One occasionally meets the challenge, even from specialists in guidance, that it is not possible to measure the outcomes of programs of guidance. That all of the outcomes can be measured with complete accuracy, no one will contend. However, it is possible to secure many data that indicate whether unsatisfactory conditions have been remedied. Reference has already been made to the general acceptance of the need for guidance, recognizing the existence of problems that are supposed to be handled by the guidance service. Do these same problems exist in schools that have a well-developed guidance service? If they do exist, do they exist in the same degree as in schools without guidance? Why do we need vocational guidance? We need it because students do not know about occupations, because they have vocational plans not in harmony with the needs of society and with their own capacities and interests, because they do not know about the program preparatory for their vocations, because they have incorrect conceptions of their abilities, etc. If we can

determine that these needs exist before guidance service is provided, we can also determine, and with the same degree of accuracy, whether the needs still exist after students have had the benefits of an organized guidance service. Guidance aims to help students plan an educational program. By what criteria shall a student evaluate his present thinking concerning a future program of study? To the extent that the guidance service can furnish students with criteria for deciding on an occupation or a plan of education, it is possible to determine whether the plans of students recognize the criteria that are available for their use.

### **Two-Year Investigation Compares Characteristics of Students in Ten Cities.**

Two general lines of investigation might be used in evaluating guidance service. One would involve a follow-up of students who have had the advantage of guidance service to determine whether the desired change took place after the service was provided. This procedure has the weakness of not showing whether the problems would have cleared up naturally without the intervention of the guidance service. If the follow-up showed a continuance of the difficulty, one might conclude that the guidance service did not bring about an improvement of the condition. However, one cannot know whether or not the conditions would have become worse if the guidance service had not been provided. The most effective use of the following procedure would require the identification of problems for a large group of students, provision of guidance service for about half of them, provision of no guidance service for the other half, and a comparison of the two groups after a period of time has elapsed. The two groups, similar before the guidance service was made available, should be similar at the time of the second test if the guidance service is entirely ineffective. Differences between the two groups at the time of the second test would indicate the effect of the guidance service. The follow-up procedure is best adapted to measuring the effect of remedial treatment of maladjusted individuals. A positive guidance service should prevent many

problems from developing; the follow-up procedure would not secure information on such outcomes.

The second procedure involves a comparison of students in schools with and without systematic programs of guidance, or a comparison of students in schools with different patterns of guidance service. Do the problems attacked by the guidance service exist to as large an extent in schools with guidance as in schools without guidance? If the problems do not exist or exist in a lesser degree in the schools with guidance, one might infer that the guidance service was responsible for the more favorable conditions. One cannot be entirely certain, however, that the guidance program accounts for the difference; other factors in the environment might be the real cause. If one studied a number of schools, however, and the same advantages were noted for the schools with guidance, one could be rather certain of the conclusions drawn. Also, some programs of guidance place greater stress on certain aspects of the guidance service than on others. The relative standing of the schools concerning the problems stressed in relation to the problems not stressed would be indicative of the effect of the guidance service.

A combination of the follow-up and comparison methods might be used by following two groups of students through the same school. The two halves of an entering class might be provided with different types of guidance service. A record could be made of the problems that emerge at each grade level and comparisons could be made between the two groups. By securing data in subsequent grades, one could show whether or not, and, if so, at what point the problems have been eliminated. This approach produces evidence on the extent to which different problems emerge. It also shows the extent to which the problems that do develop are cared for.

The followup method or a combination of the followup and comparison methods might be used as effectively for two successive grades as for two halves of the same grade. That is, the entering class of 1933 might be provided with a minimum

of guidance service throughout their life in the secondary school while the entering class of 1934 might be provided with a maximum program. A comparison of the data for the two grade groups for comparable grade levels would provide data much similar to those obtained by a comparison of the two halves of a grade group at some one level. A comparison of groups within the same school has distinct advantages over that of students in different schools since the non-guidance features of the program of the school and the conditions in the community would be similar when the comparisons are made within a school.

The "comparison" procedure was used in the investigation of the outcomes of programs of guidance now being brought to completion and made on a grant by the Carnegie Corporation through the Carnegie Foundation. Approximately five thousand students were measured in ten cities. Nine of the cities were selected because of stress on guidance over a period of years and because these cities represented different patterns of guidance service and communities of different sizes. One city was chosen because of the meagerness of the guidance service. The ten cities studied were Camden, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Jamestown, New York, Joliet, Pasadena, Pittsburgh, Providence, Scotia, New York, and South Orange, New Jersey. In cities with more than one junior and senior high-school, the authorities were asked to choose the school on each level in which they believed the most effective guidance was under way. A sampling was made of the students in the schools selected. One hundred students were selected in a random manner from the eighth grade, another hundred from the eleventh grade, a hundred from the graduates of the high-school in 1928 and 1929, and a hundred from the sixth grade in the elementary schools from which the junior-high-school come. (1) The sixth-grade students were included to ascertain whether or not differences exist—at the time students enter the high-school. In this way, one can tell whether or not the differences between the high-school groups developed during their stay in the high-school. Tests were constructed to meas-

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(1) Only eleventh grade students were studied in Indianapolis, Joliet, and South Orange.

ure the students' knowledge about occupations, about factors that should be considered in the various important choices which students must make, about false guidance, about the program of the school, about college-entrance requirements, etc. Detailed information was secured concerning the students' educational, vocational, and recreational plans and their reason for their plans. Published tests of adjustment and vocational interests were also employed. A full day of writing was required of each student in furnishing the information being used.

It is not possible to present many data at this time. Only a few can be discussed to illustrate certain lines of analysis. Those reported are for eleventh grade students in two cities. The program of guidance in one city is among the oldest and best known in the country. The other city was without a systematic guidance program. Data also were obtained in these two cities for students in grade six and eight but only data for the eleventh-grade group will be reported here. Hereafter, the students of the school with large stress on guidance will be referred to as the "guided" group and those of the school with little guidance will be referred to as the "unguided" group. The number of students represented is 82 for the guided group and 130 for the unguided group.

The percentage of students with definite vocational choices is practically the same for the two groups. The percentage is 67.7 for the unguided group and 65.8 for the guided group. The standard error of the difference, 6.7 per cent, is much larger than the difference, so the difference is not statistically significant. There is also no significant difference between the percentages of students in the two groups without choices but with stated preference for one or more vocations. The percentage is 17.0 for the unguided group and 18.2 for the guided group. The standard error of the difference is 5.4 per cent so, again, the small difference is without significance. A real difference does exist, however, between the intelligence quotients of students planning to enter certain groups of occupations. One illustration will be given here. The mean intelligence quotient of students planning to enter the profes-

sions is 104.2 for the unguided group and 117.5 for the guided group. The standard error of the difference is only 2.0 so the difference is 6.6 times the standard error. Thus, there are relatively fewer students with lower intelligence planning to enter the professions in the guided group than in the unguided group.

The extensive measurement of vocational information failed to disclose any significant difference between the two groups of students. The mean score for the guided group is 350.5 and for the unguided group 343.3. The standard error of the difference is 5.5. The small difference in score is thus without significance.

A comparison of the knowledge possessed by the students concerning certain types of educational information discloses significant differences. The scores of students who plan to enter college on a test of information concerning entrance requirements of the colleges chosen, show a large difference in favor of the guided group. The mean score is 22.5 for the unguided group and 42.9 for the guided group. The standard error of the difference is 4.1 so the difference is five times its standard error. Clearly, the guided students who plan to go to college know more about the entrance requirements of the colleges they plan to enter than is true for the unguided group.

A comparison of the adjustment of the guided and unguided students discloses no significant difference between the two groups. The mean score on the Symonds-Block Student Questionnaire for the unguided group is 364.0 and for the guided group 356.2. The standard error of the difference is 5.2. The difference is thus a chance difference and without significance. It should be pointed out, however, that the unguided group had as favorable a status as the unguided group in their adjustment as measured by this test.

The few data that have been presented suggest that the guided students are in a more favorable position on some points, while on other points there are no significant differences between the two groups. Generalizations should not be attempted from the data presented. They cover only students



in one grade in two cities. When the data for the different groups in the ten cities are reported, a more adequate basis for judgment will be available. Also, the five relationships here reported give only slight indication of what will be obtained in the approximately seventy-five relationships included in the total investigation. It should also be pointed out that data of the type presented above will have more meaning when they are related to the features of the program of guidance that has been provided for the different groups of students. It is to be regretted that limitations of space preclude a systematic interpretation of the data presented. They should however serve to illustrate the comparative approach in the appraisal of programs of guidance.

Superintendent L. W. Smith, of Berkeley, California, read his paper.

### A STUDY OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPIL POPULATION IN AID OF THE REVISION OF THE CURRICULUM

L. W. SMITH,  
Superintendent of Schools,  
Berkeley, California

The staff of the Berkeley Public Schools, like those in many other cities, is in the process of continuous revision of its curriculum. Many problems arise in connection with such a project which it is difficult to follow because of the lack of dependable information. During the last few years it has been the practice to carry on researches of various kinds from a practical point of view to provide as much of this needed data as possible. It is the purpose of this paper to show how this was carried on in connection with one of the questions that has come up in connection with the revision of the high-school curriculum.

Question was raised as to whether or not the Counseling Department could depend upon the curriculum set-up in the



lower schools to provide an adequate base for the differentiated courses in the senior high-school. In particular the question was raised as to whether or not all of the incoming students in the Low 10 grade had had a full exposure to the exploratory courses provided in the junior high-schools in the city. Also, whether or not these pupils had had the courses provided in the elementary schools of the city. Further question: If the pupils had had the exploratory courses in the junior high-school, had they had a full exposure—that is, had they had as many trial courses as they were supposed to have had. Furthermore, if the pupils had been subjected to the shop courses in the junior high-schools, did they, as a result, in large numbers take the shop courses in the senior high-school? Further question: Was there need for a general shop course on the senior high-school level in view of the fact that there were general shop courses on the junior high-school level?

In this connection it should be stated that there are in Berkeley one senior high-school, an opportunity or continuation high-school, and four junior high-schools. These junior high-schools have had a long history, the first junior high-school in the country having been organized in Berkeley in about 1910 or 1911. Early in the history of these junior high-schools the exploratory function had been established in these schools. In order to determine what shop work had been taken in the junior high-schools in the general courses provided there, a questionnaire was filled out by the students in the Low 10 class of the senior high-school in September of 1932. The questionnaire is herewith.

## BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Name.....

What junior high-school did you attend?.....

No. of years.....

Please indicate, by filling in the blanks below, the various kinds of shop work you had in junior high school. In each grade, specify as accurately as possible the number of weeks taken.

Type of Shop Work	Low 7	High 7	Low 8	High 8	Low 9	High 9
	Shop No. Weeks	Shop No. Weeks	Shop No. Weeks	Shop No. Weeks	Shop No. Weeks	Shop No. Weeks
Auto Mechanics						
Book Binding						
Cement work						
Electrical Work						
Forging						
Machine Shop						
Mechanical Drawing						
Plumbing						
Printing						
Sheet Metal						
Wicker and Reed Work						
Wood Work						

Please list below your present senior high-school program (the subjects you are now taking).

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

This questionnaire shows the kind of shop work provided in the junior high-schools in the city. Characteristically this shop work is given in five-week units during the eighth year work. As stated, all Low 10 boys were asked to fill out the

questionnaire concerning their shop experience. The study herein reported was based on the report of 136 of these students whose junior high-school experience was obtained in one of the Berkeley junior high-schools. The total number of responses to the questionnaire was 241. The following table is a classification of the replies. The information was tabulated by schools as well as in the whole group.

TABLE I

Total number responses to questionnaire.....	241
Number with 3 years in the same Berkeley Junior High-School—data complete .....	136
Number with 3 years in the same Berkeley Junior High-School—data incomplete .....	3
Number with 3 years in 2 or more different Berkeley Junior High-Schools.....	5
Number with 0-2½ years in Berkeley Junior High-Schools .....	97

Table II gives the number of terms of shop experience of these pupils:

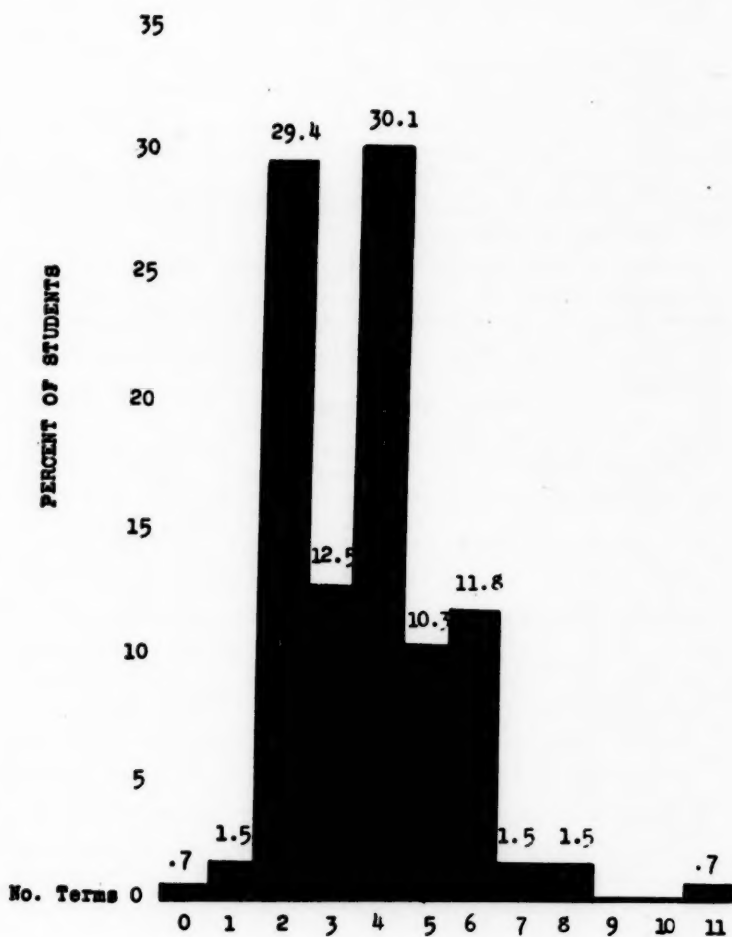
TABLE II

Number Terms of Shop Experience in Junior-High-School	Number Students	Percent of Students
0	1	.7
1	2	1.5
2	40	29.4
3	17	12.5
4	41	30.1
5	14	10.3
6	16	11.8
7	2	1.5
8	2	1.5
9	0	
10	0	
11	1	.7
Total	136	100

Chart No. 1 gives the number of terms of shop experience by the percentage of the pupils distributed as noted in the graph.

CHART 1

BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
NUMBER OF TERMS OF SHOP EXPERIENCE  
OF 136 L10 STUDENTS



When taking into account the fact that it is one of the principles maintained by educators that practically all of the pupils in the junior high-school should have shop work for two reasons—one, that they need to become acquainted with a number of shops for general educational purposes, and the other, that they may have an adequate base for the selection of a shop or the rejection of shop work altogether—it is to be noted that a large percentage of the pupils did not have a sufficient experience in the junior high-school with shop work. As a matter of fact, over 50% of the pupils had less than five shop exposures of odd terms of work in shops.

Another important consideration in this connection is to determine whether or not this shop work was of a varied character. If the most of it was in a single shop or in two or three shops, it would not supply the variety needed for exploratory purposes. Table III gives the tabulation of the variety of shop experience of the Low 10 students in junior high-school shop work. The inquiry information shown in Table III is graphically shown in Chart 2. In this chart it is seen that the mode is three different shops and that over 50% had less than the expected exposure of five shops. This same information is shown in percentages in Table IV and Chart 3.

TABLE III

Number of Different Shops	Number				All Schools
	Burbank	Edison	Garfield	Willard	
0	1	---	---	---	1
1	0	10	---	1	11
2	4	9	---	14	27
3	29	9	---	5	43
4	2	1	8	2	13
5	---	---	32	---	32
6	---	---	7	---	7
7	---	---	2	---	2
Number students	36	29	49	22	136
Median number shops per student	3	2	5	2	3
Average number shops per student	3	2	5	2	3
Standard deviation	.64	.89	.68	.79	1.5

TABLE IV

Number Different Shops	Number Students	Per Cent of Students
0	1	.7
1	11	8.1
2	27	19.9
3	43	31.6
4	13	9.6
5	32	23.5
6	7	5.1
7	2	1.5
Total	136	100

CHART 2

BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
 VARIETY OF SHOP EXPERIENCE OF 136 L10 STUDENTS

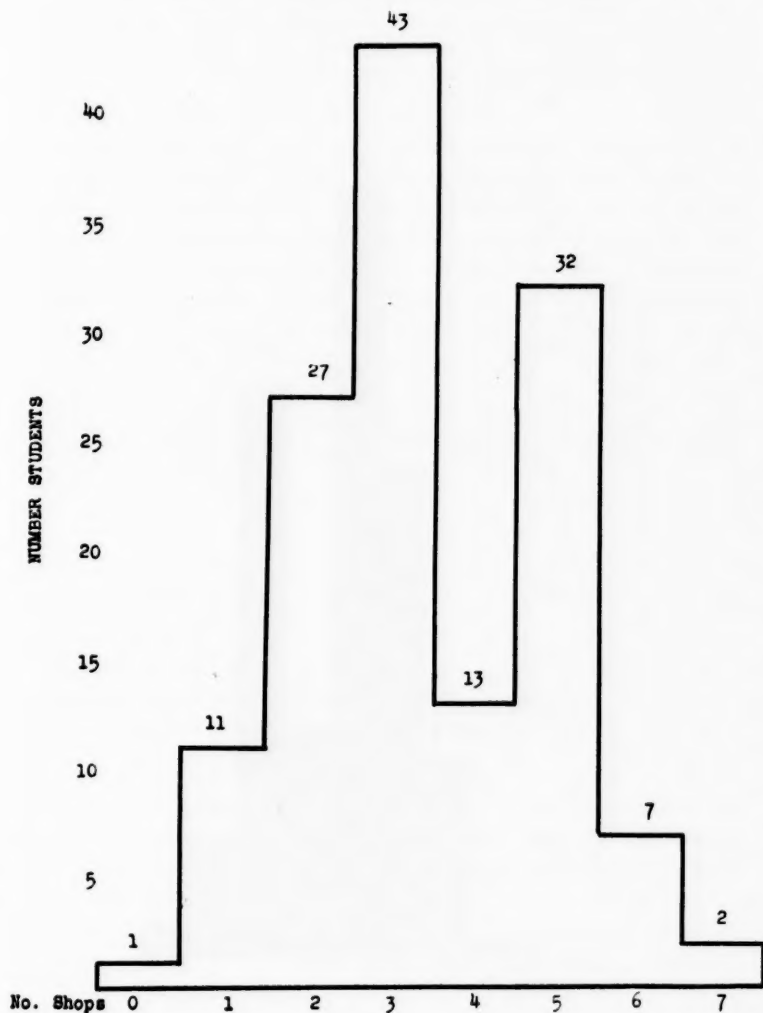
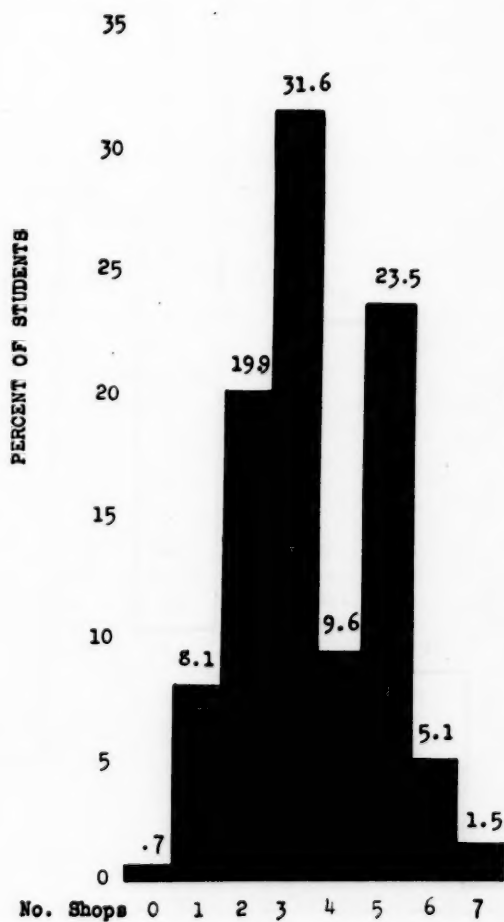




CHART 3

BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
VARIETY OF SHOP EXPERIENCE OF 136 L10 BOYS



The conclusion is clear that neither in length of time spent in shops nor in variety of shop experiences have the pupils had a proper exploratory course in the handicrafts on the junior high-school level. In other words, although theoretically the staff may be convinced that the curriculum is operating, and the underlying philosophy being held as being sound by members of the staff; nevertheless, a factual investigation shows that, in Berkeley's case, at least, the kind of training is not being given that is intended.

An interesting question to raise in this connection is whether or not the pupils who do shop work in junior high-school take shop work on the high-school level. Of these 136 pupils the distribution as regards enrollment in shop work in high school is shown in Table V. The material in Table V is shown in Chart 4. An interesting speculation in this connection is what induces so small a number of shop workers on the junior high-school level to take shop work on the senior high-school level. Notice that 73% of them take no kind of shop work at all. Twenty-one percent take shop work and 6% take courses allied to shop, such as mechanical or industrial drawing.

TABLE V

Program	Number	
	Students	Percent
No shop work.....	99	73
Regular Shop work .....	29	21
Courses allied to shop, as mechanical or industrial drawing, but no regular shop work....	8	6
Total .....	136	100

It is to be noted that one of the junior high-schools has its pupils exposed to a larger number of shops than the other junior high-schools.

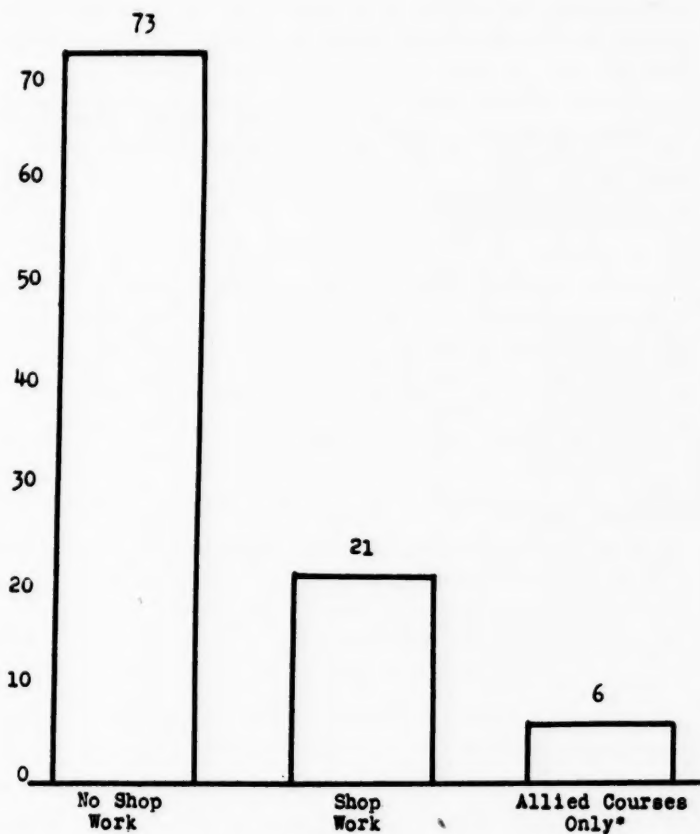
In the preparation of these data comments came from one of the schools to the effect that, while these courses were designated general shop courses, they covered six six-weeks

courses during the course of a year, and that pupils thereby became confused and did not list in the questionnaire their experiences in the separate shops. It should be stated in this connection that, if a student is not clear in his own mind relative to the differentiation of his work into varied shop experiences, the school is failing in one of its functions. Pupils must be conscious of the fact that they are having the privilege of exploring different types of shop work before the purposes of exploration can be fulfilled.

CHART 4

BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
PRESENT PROGRAM OF 136 L10 BOYS

Percent



\* Mechanical or industrial drawing but no regular shop.

# **BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS SCHOOL HISTORY**

Name..... Grade..... Date.....

Please indicate by filling in the blanks below all the schools you have attended grade by grade. In case you attended a Junior High-School place the work of grades 7, 8 and 9 under the heading Junior High-School. If your 9th grade work was in Junior High-School you will *not* repeat the information for the 9th grade under the heading of Senior High-School.

Name of School	Location of School City	State	Number Semesters in Each Grade
<b>Kindergarten</b>			
<b>Elementary School Grade</b>			
			1.
			2.
			3.
			4.
			5.
			6.
			7.
			8.
<b>Junior High-School</b>			
			7.
			8.
			9.
<b>Senior High-School</b>			
			9.
			10.
			11.
			12.

The result of this study caused us to raise still further question. The high-school courses are based upon what are supposed to be the courses given in the elementary schools and

the junior high-schools of the city. In how far is it possible to depend upon the principle that the foundation work is laid by the curriculum as taught in the Berkeley Public Schools. A questionnaire, as shown herewith, was, therefore, prepared and filled out by every pupil in the Berkeley High-School on October 4, 1932. There were approximately 2700 pupils in the senior high-school.

One of the purposes of the questionnaire was to find out how many of the students now enrolled had gone through the Berkeley system. Another question we wished to answer was how many students had had an opportunity to take the exploratory courses given in the junior high-schools.

Summarizing the results, 34% of the students now enrolled in Berkeley High-School attended Berkeley schools continuously from first grade to date. Some students attended in Berkeley for a time, dropped out, and returned later. Percents attending each grade in Berkeley schools from first to ninth ranged from 42% attending the first grade in Berkeley to 80% attending the ninth. Eighty-two percent of all students enrolled attended a junior high school in grades 7 and 8. How much work of an exploratory nature was offered by those junior high-schools outside of Berkeley we have no means of knowing. Nine percent attended an eight-grade grammar school.

Table VI gives the percentage of the Berkeley High-School enrollment in October, 1932, who attended lower grades in Berkeley Public Schools. As is to be expected, the lower down the grades you go, the smaller the percentage of high school students who attended Berkeley Public Schools. It is surprising, however, that only 42% of them attended the first grade. That is, over half of the pupils in the Berkeley High-School did not attend the lower grades in Berkeley. However, more than three-fourths of them attended junior high-school at some time or other. The information is shown graphically in Chart 5.

TABLE VI  
THE PERCENTAGE OF THE BERKELEY HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 10-4-32 WHO ATTENDED LOWER GRADES IN BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Grade Attended in Berkeley	Percent of L-10 Class Attending	Percent of L-10 Class Attending	Percent of L-10 Class Attending	Percent of H-12 Class Attending	Percent of H-12 Class Attending	Percent of All Students Attending
Kindergarten	28	36	23	26	27	27
L 1	43	52	36	43	38	42
H 1	43	52	36	43	46	42
L 2	45	53	38	45	39	44
H 2	46	54	38	45	50	45
L 3	48	59	41	49	45	48
H 3	48	59	41	49	53	52
L 4	52	64	45	58	46	55
H 4	52	64	46	58	47	56
L 5	57	68	50	62	51	57
H 5	57	69	50	63	62	58
L 6	59	70	52	68	56	61
H 6	59	71	53	70	68	62
L 7	68	77	64	72	65	73
H 7	68	78	64	74	75	70
L 8	72	79	68	78	69	77
H 8	72	80	69	78	70	74
L 9	80	84	74	81	77	83
H 9	81	83	75	81	84	79
L 10	100	93	86	88	85	80
H 10		100	87	91	86	90
L 11			100	98	92	93
H 11				100	92	95
L 12					100	98
H 12						100



CHART 5

# PERCENTAGE OF BERKELEY HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 10-4-32 WHO ATTENDED LOWER GRADES IN BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

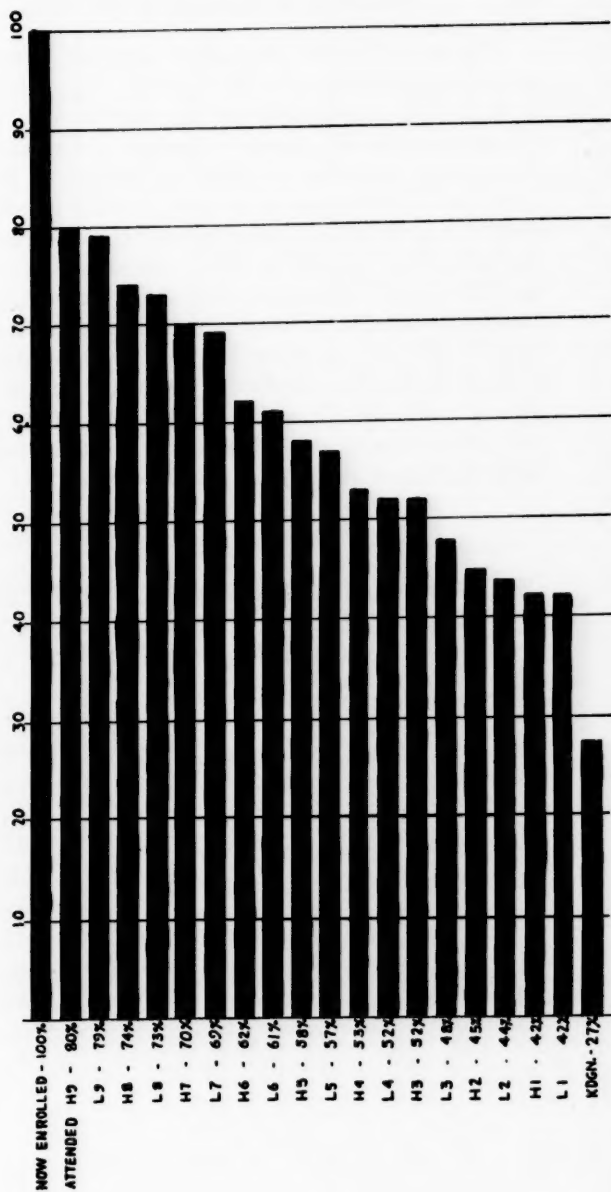


Table VII shows the percent attending Berkeley Public Schools continuously since first grade. The information given in Table VII is shown graphically in Chart 6. It is interesting to note that the second semester, or the advanced semester, in each grade has a higher percentage of Berkeley pupils from the eighth grade on to the present time than the lower semester in each high-school grade. It is interesting to speculate as to the reasons for this. Perhaps it is fair to assume that the pupils who have spent their whole time in Berkeley Public Schools have been able to take advantage of all the opportunities for acceleration and, in particular, to take advantage of the plan invoked in Berkeley; that is, to have semi-annual promotion. Perhaps pupils coming from outside might take advantage of this situation in a smaller way than those who have lived in Berkeley all their lives.

TABLE VII  
HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS WHO ATTENDED BERKELEY  
PUBLIC SCHOOLS CONTINUOUSLY FROM  
GRADE 1 TO PRESENT

Class	Number Filling Questionnaire	Number in Continuous Attendance	Percent in Continuous Attendance
L 10 .....	522	177	34
H 10 .....	351	165	47
L 11 .....	539	145	27
H 11 .....	383	135	35
L 12 .....	474	137	28
H 12 .....	304	122	40
Total .....	2,573	881	34

CHART 6

THE PERCENT OF THE TOTAL ENROLLMENT OF EACH CLASS:  
THAT HAS ATTENDED BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
CONTINUOUSLY SINCE THE FIRST GRADE

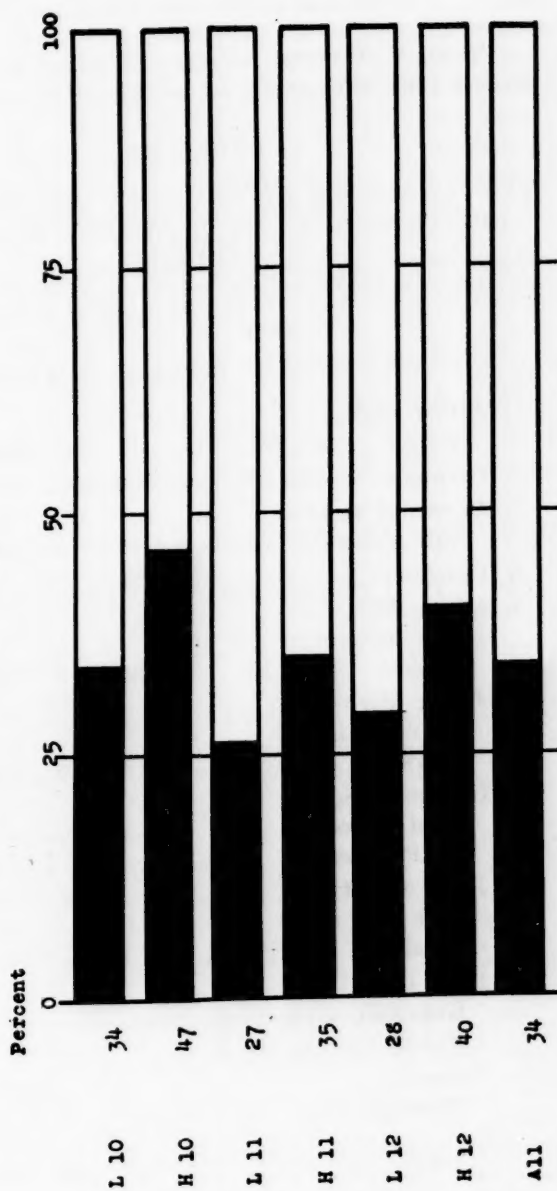


Table VIII shows the type of school attended in the seventh and eighth grades by Berkeley High School students.

TABLE VIII  
TYPE OF SCHOOL ATTENDED IN THE SEVENTH AND  
EIGHTH GRADES BY BERKELEY HIGH-SCHOOL  
STUDENTS

	Number of Students						Grades
	L-10	H-10	L-11	H-11	L-12	H-12	10-12
1. Junior High-School .....	437	318	417	327	353	260	2,112
2. Grammar School..	33	21	66	33	64	23	240
3. Parochial or Private School.....	26	....	13	5	29	5	78
4. Coaching .....	....	....	1	....	....	....	1
5. Junior High and Grammar Schools .....	13	7	30	8	20	11	89
6. Junior High and Parochial or Private .....	8	....	8	3	4	2	25
7. Grammar School and Parochial or Private.....	2	....	....	....	1	....	3
8. Junior High School and Coaching .....	....	....	1	....	....	....	1
9. Junior High, Grammar and Private .....	....	....	1	....	....	....	1
10. Unusable Questionnaires	3	5	2	7	3	3	23
Total .....	522	351	539	383	474	304	2,573

Table IX shows the percentage of high-school students attending seventh and eighth grades in each type of school. It is noted that 82% of the students concerned attended a junior high-school type. A little over 9% attended a grammar school. Three percent plus attended a private or parochial school, and so on down the list. That is, about 18% did not have the typical type of training provided by the schools of Berkeley.

TABLE IX

PERCENT OF BERKELEY HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS  
ATTENDING SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES IN EACH  
TYPE OF SCHOOL

	Percent of Students						
	Grades						
	L-10	H-10	L-11	H-11	L-12	H-12	10-12
1. Junior High School .....	83.7	90.6	77.4	85.4	74.5	85.5	82.08
2. Grammar School .....	6.3	6.0	12.2	8.6	13.5	7.6	9.33
3. Parochial or Private School .....	5.0		2.4	1.3	6.1	1.6	3.03
4. Coaching .....			.2				.04
5. Junior High and Grammar Schools .....	2.5	2.0	5.5	2.1	4.2	3.6	3.46
6. Junior High and Parochial or Private ....	1.5		1.5	.8	.9	.7	.97
7. Grammar School and Parochial or Private .....	.4				.2		.12
8. Junior High School and Coaching .....			.2				.04
9. Junior High, Grammar, and Private .....			.2				.04
10. Unusable Questionnaires .....	.6	1.4	.4	1.8	.6	1.0	.89
Total .....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The material shown in the tables and graphs makes it clear that the high school courses cannot be completely set up on the assumption that certain types of work have been done in the curriculum in the lower grades and in the junior high school. In this connection the data herein developed indicates that the pupils going through the junior high schools must, as far as it is at all practicable, be exposed to the exploratory courses and these courses must be conducted in such a way as to establish clearly in the minds of the pupils the character and significance of the trial courses which they are taking. It is further made clear that the counselling department should see to it that all of the pupils shall have had at least the minimum number of trial courses provided for.

Another important conclusion is that the general and trial courses already established in the high school must be fully utilized for the benefit of those pupils who for one reason or another did not have opportunity of taking these courses on the junior high school level.

Professor V. C. Fryklund, specialist in Industrial Education of the Employment Stabilization Research Institute of the University of Minnesota, read a paper, *Implications of Findings in Certain Research Studies in Unemployment on Vocational Education in Secondary-Schools*.

G. M. Wiley, Assistant Commissioner, Secondary Education Division, State Education Department, Albany, New York, read his paper entitled, *Cooperative Studies in Secondary Education in New York State*.

## COOPERATIVE STUDIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN NEW YORK STATE

DR. GEO. M. WILEY,

Assistant Commissioner of Education,  
State Education Department,  
Albany, New York

The major interest in progressive secondary education in New York State during the past four years has been centered

in the cooperative studies which have been carried on by groups of principals representing every section of the state and also every type of school. Furthermore, the significant feature of this activity is found in the word "cooperative." Many principals were engaged in these studies and in attacking these problems. The large number of men and women in administrative work in secondary education who made up the membership of these groups insured a breadth of vision and a common denominator of thinking without which no progressive program in any level of education can be developed.

Accepting for the moment the principle of activity as fundamental in education, whether the age be fourteen or forty, the importance of enlisting large groups of principals in the work was obvious. We trust that there has been leadership. This has been, however, merely a guiding and directing influence. The large outcomes that are now being realized as a result of this work are due to the hundred and more high-school principals who have made up the membership of our committee and sub-committees on secondary-school problems.

Throughout this period the high-school principals' association, the state council of school superintendents, and the state department of education have worked in the closest cooperation. The major committee had seven members, three high-school principals, two city school superintendents, and two representatives of the state department. Let it be added that there have been no suspicions regarding prerequisites, nor have there been any jealousies regarding prerogatives. In the time at my disposal I shall attempt to present briefly only three phases of these studies; (1) the first approach which led to a consideration of the social philosophy underlying popular secondary education; (2) the second step in which specific problems were taken up dealing with needed readjustments in junior and senior high schools; and (3) finally some of the outcomes already being realized in the high schools of the state.

While it was extremely difficult at the outset to formulate a statement on which there might be common agreement relative to the aims and purposes of secondary education



the committee was at least reasonably successful. This series of statements consisting of nine "theses" has been the subject of three revisions. The basic thought, however, has been persistent and has profoundly influenced the thinking of teachers as well as principals throughout the state.

As illustrative of the cooperative character of these studies even in these early stages it may be noted that the superintendents, principals, and high-school teachers were kept in close touch with the work that was being carried forward. The first tentative draft of functions or "theses" as they were called, was sent out to thousands of teachers inviting their comment and urging a full expression of their point of view. These reactions from the teaching staff were analyzed and used in the two later revisions.

Obviously this cooperative approach served a double purpose. The contribution of the secondary teachers was of unusual value in clearing the thinking of the central committee. On the other hand the challenge of the statement as formulated and submitted to the teacher groups invited wide discussion and developed a new type of creative thinking in terms of the increasing responsibility of the schools in meeting the needs of a social democracy. The fact that each teacher was invited to express his or her own thought in detail regarding these proposals had a profound influence on the thinking of the entire teaching staff. In other words a new philosophy was beginning to modify the practices in secondary education long before any formal report appeared.

Another phase of the initial work was of no less significance, the cooperation invited from pupil groups. Reactions were secured from nearly 15,000 high-school pupils. It was believed that "pupils in high schools have valuable suggestions to make." This opinion was abundantly confirmed. In addition to certain more or less formal questions, each high-school student was asked to write a paragraph expressing his frank opinion regarding each of the following: (1) the value to the high-school boy or girl of extra curriculum activities; (2) the most helpful teacher I have known and how he or she influenced me; (3) the needs of the high-school boy

or girl; and (4) how the high school could be made more helpful to its pupils. In one of our large cosmopolitan high schools these comments of pupils regarding teaching service, adolescent needs, and school readjustments were made the keynote of faculty discussions and conferences for several months. These illustrations may be sufficient to make clear that our approach challenged the thinking of all groups pupil, teacher, principal, superintendent, and state administrator regarding the basic principles underlying our procedures in secondary education.

The second step brought us face to face with specific problems dealing with the readjustments needed in secondary schools. As an aid toward insuring reasonably adequate factual data regarding the nature of the adolescent groups in junior and senior high-schools several research studies were carried on by the research division of the state department in addition to those already mentioned. One significant study may be used as an illustration, "Levels and Ranges of Ability in New York State High Schools." This study which covered fifty-nine different cities or communities, and included over 18,000 individual pupil records aroused wide interest. It presents extensive data regarding pupils throughout the six-year junior senior high-school period.

The careful analysis that was made indicating the wide range of both chronological and mental age levels has been of outstanding value to everyone who is studying these problems constructively. It was found that while there is a range of approximately ten years in mental maturity in each year of the secondary school, the middle fifty percent gives a range in mental age of approximately two years. Obviously there arose at once questions and problems with regard to organization group and individual adjustment, curriculum materials and classroom technic that proved to be a challenge to large numbers of teachers in junior and senior high schools.

This challenge expressed itself in a concrete effort to attack some of the problems involved. The committee and subcommittee groups agreed that the statistical and scientific information which we have relative to individual differences

among high-school pupils has far outdistanced the progress that has thus far been made to adapt the school organization and the classroom technic to meet these conditions.

It will be appreciated that we were immediately confronted with many more issues than could be given prompt consideration. After careful consideration the following problems were selected for study, each assigned to a separate sub-committee.

1. The reorganization of the social studies to meet the needs of adolescents in a modern social democracy.

This committee consisted of nine members. This phase of secondary school readjustment is far reaching in its relationship to the whole philosophy underlying the reorganization of secondary education. If there is any field of study which must be given a major place in the public high-school of to-morrow, it is the social studies. This assertion is made with the assumption that we agree on a broad interpretation of the social subjects and the part which the school must play in a social democracy.

2. The function of directed study as a classroom technic in the redirection of secondary education.

This committee responsible for this study consisted of eight members. Their work followed two major lines, one taking up the theory and literature of the field, the other analyzing the best practices in typical school organizations.

The several theses proposed by the committee in the analysis of the functions of secondary education pointed in the direction of such readjustments of classroom method and technic as would serve in a much more purposeful manner the needs of the individual student. If our social theory of education is accepted we are confronted at once with the problem of so organizing of the school and so developing our classroom procedures that each pupil shall have every opportunity to do his best in those fields that are of special value and interest to him and through which he will be able to serve best his fellow-man.

Directed study is a change in emphasis from teacher activity to pupil activity. It offers an unusual opportunity for individual growth as well as group instruction. Directed study puts a new emphasis on the learning process.

3. The problem of constants in the curriculum.

The committee in charge of this study consisted of thirteen members. Their work was very difficult due to wide differences of opinion. They pointed out that while these questions dealing with the program of studies are extremely difficult at the moment, they will be even more difficult in the future due to the increasing complexity and heterogeneity of the high-school population. Their thought took the definite direction looking toward a basic core of subjects for the junior high-school level with wide optional choices of subjects in the senior high school depending on individual interests, abilities, attitudes and aptitudes, as well as objectives and purposes toward one's life work. The following statement from the tentative report of this committee may be of general interest at the moment: "There is agreement that it is not possible to set up a constant content for any subject of the curriculum but only to indicate the general fields or subject matter which it is believed should always be present." In other words, a subject which may be regarded as a constant for all curriculums and for all students, such as English, should probably vary widely in the character of the detailed material making up the subject matter. The machinery of the school organization must not crush teaching initiative nor interfere with the growth and development of individual pupils.

4. The place of guidance as an aid in the realization of the purposes of the secondary school.

One of the most significant contributions of our various committees has been made by this group of fifteen members whose report will soon be issued as a separate bulletin.

Even a casual consideration of the general statements on the aims and functions of secondary education referred to earlier, together with a recognition of the enormously increas-

ing enrolment in secondary schools, and an appreciation of the increasing complexity of the social order in which we live and which the secondary schools must serve, indicates something of the increasing responsibility of everyone working in the field of secondary education in assisting these young people in making worth while individual and life adjustments. Guidance in the secondary school as defined by this committee, "Consists of the coordination of those educational procedures which give the child help in evaluating himself,—his capacities, interests, and abilities, in the light of accessible educational and occupational opportunities, which enable him to live efficiently in his ethical and social relationships, and which aid him to progress at his optimum capacity in the work he attempts."

It is obvious that guidance is a much larger function than we have thus far realized. It is not the function alone of the counsellor or guidance teacher. It is in part the responsibility of every teacher in every classroom. The teacher's importance in any adequate guidance program will be more generally recognized and preparation made for it as the newer purposes of secondary education are more generally recognized.

5. What types of secondary schools should be organized and what reorganization of present high schools are advisable to serve more adequately the adolescent population?

This committee consisted of twenty members. While many of their tentative recommendations might be regarded as local or regional in application, much of the material in their report would be quite as applicable to one section of the country as to another. They recommend, for instance, that all rural elementary schools should be restricted to grades one to six; that the reorganization of secondary education continue along the lines of the 6-6 plan although in larger centers this may take the form of the 6-3-3 plan. They recommended the further extension and development of practical arts for both boys and girls in grades seven, eight and nine and suggested that the program for vocational education in secondary schools should begin with the tenth year. As a means of bringing more

effective vocational and industrial opportunities to secondary pupils in the rural areas, they recommend the setting up of central vocational schools for both boys and girls open to those pupils who have completed the ninth grade or whose interests may be best served by this type of school.

It is also the thought of these groups that the larger secondary schools, central rural schools, village schools and city schools, which enroll pupils with widely differing interests should be of the comprehensive or cosmopolitan type and should combine in the general organization the best practices and the progressive developments of both junior and senior high schools in order that the needs of all pupils, whatever may be their later objective in life, be more adequately served.

As a third and last point let us merely point out some of the outcomes of these cooperative studies. The results are both immediate and remote.

An immediate result but of far reaching significance is the fact that the large majority of secondary teachers of the state are now thinking purposefully regarding the philosophy underlying secondary education. They are endeavoring to interpret the vital relationship between the secondary schools and American social democracy. Increasing experimentation is being carried on looking toward individual pupil adjustment and growth rather than memoriter mass instruction. The various subjects of study are being used rather as a means to an end and not as an end in themselves. More and more is it appreciated that where there arises any conflict between the mechanics of the school system and the needs of the individual boy or girl, the system must give way. Over and above those subjects with outstanding social values which may be said to be a denominator common to all, the value of subject matter depends largely on its use in developing individual ability and in shaping life purposes.

Another immediate outcome is the coordinating effort of research workers, school administrators, and classroom teachers. Heretofore these groups have been so overwhelming aloof from each other! Classroom teachers at times took keen delight in paying their respects to principals and superintendents. Too often research work was carried on as it were in cloistered



cells. The real laboratory, however, for educational research is the classroom itself, together with the social and community environment surrounding the classroom, and which contributes those priceless human factors through which we are endeavoring to insure a better world. These studies are marked by the closest cooperation of teacher, principal, and research worker.

Possibly the most immediate outcome is a changed point of view. The thinking of the teacher has been thoroughly aroused. Even some principals have been awakened to the fact that secondary education has deep social significance. As a result, purposeful and constructive experimentation is being carried on in scores of schools and centers throughout the state.

All such studies and experimentation should be continuing as well as cooperative. We have no thought that the five problems which have been mentioned will be in any sense finally settled when the several reports appear in printed form. The challenge is in the problem rather than in its final solution. The school system which assumes that it has solved all curriculum problems is ready for burial. The constantly changing complexity of the social, industrial and economic order in which we live compels the school to use every resource at its command in readjusting its work to meet these rapidly changing conditions. Only as such problems are recognized as continuing in character will reasonably satisfactory outcomes be attained.

It has already become apparent that the results of these studies and the activities of professional groups working directly or indirectly on similar problems will have an influence on the readjustment of secondary education in New York that will continue indefinitely. The vision is toward the future. The center of interest is the individual boy or girl. The needs of adolescents are of paramount concern. The great laboratory of life is the richest material available for education. The school organization or system must not defeat the larger purposes of education. The school must challenge every opportunity for the growth, the development and the happiness of every pupil. Only as the secondary school renders its largest service to its adolescent clientele will it render its largest service to society.



## LUNCHEON

Wednesday, March 1st, at 12:15 P. M.

In the Main Dining Room of the Leamington Hotel

One hundred thirty were in attendance. The flowers were the gift of the Minneapolis Principal's Forum. The nut trays and favors were presented with the compliments of the high-schools of Minneapolis. Principal and Mrs. MacQuarrie took care of the many details that made the luncheon a success. The President of the Department, W. W. Haggard, presided.

President L. D. Coffman, of the University of Minnesota, was the guest speaker, talking on the subject, *International Good Will and the Secondary-School*.

Assistant Superintendent Milo H. Stuart, of Indianapolis, made a brief report on the Tercentenary Celebration of the Founding of the American High-School.

Galen Jones, of Tulsa, Oklahoma, presented the following amendment to the constitution:

Resolved, that Section 4 of Article V be made to read, "The executive secretary shall be employed by the executive committee at an annual salary to be determined by the executive committee."

Professor Thomas H. Briggs, of Columbia University, and Chairman of the Carnegie Committee, read the following report:

## FIRST REPORT OF THE CARNEGIE COMMISSION

Preliminary Statement by Chairman

THOMAS H. BRIGGS,  
Teachers College, Columbia University.

In the fifteen years since the latest report of a national commission on the program of secondary education much water has run under the bridges. Social, economic, industrial, political, and religious changes of unprecedented nature have brought a new life, in the maelstrom of which we find ourselves bewildered and attempting to carry on with an educational machinery devised for changed conditions. Although with better organization, better buildings and equipment, more wide-spread opportunity, better trained teachers, and an enrollment beyond the dreams of any other nation at any other time, secondary education has not yet found itself, has not yet adapted itself to the new frontiers of civilization. Being a lusty and expensive youth, it has received and is receiving more criticism than any other part of our educational system. But, it should be added, this criticism though to a large extent justified is caused not from an unwillingness of administrators and teachers to make desirable adjustments. It is caused by an ignorance, shared with economists, industrialists, and leaders in other fields, of what the new phenomena of civilization demand.

It can not be too strongly emphasized that the problems of secondary education are not isolated and independent. They are inextricably bound up with those of elementary, vocational, and higher cultural education, and they spring from the problems of this new civilization, which is so complex that no one understands it or is therefore able to give it convincingly wise direction. Much of the criticism has emanated from a failure to understand this, from a foolish expectance that high schools can lead the way to reform that are not yet defined by societal leaders or accepted by the public. Secondary education can not be made adequate until the characteristics and needs of society are understood. But there are adjustments that can

and should be made to conditions and demands that are obvious, and provision can be made for long-term planning as researches and reflection reveal the plans that are necessary for the whole of our civilization.

Because of the criticisms, because of a recognition of changed conditions, because the abundant facts collected by the National Survey will soon be available, and because of a feeling of inadequacy on the part of every thoughtful administrator and teacher more or less isolated in his potentiality and bound by popular devotion to traditional procedures, the Department of Secondary-School Principals at its 1932 meeting authorized, on motion of Professor Jesse B. Davis, the appointment of a committee "to study and restate the principles and objectives of secondary education."

Subsequently President W. W. Haggard appointed a small committee consisting of Milo H. Stuart, of Indianapolis, Curtis H. Threlkeld, of South Orange, New Jersey, and Thomas H. Briggs, of Teachers College, Columbia University, to plan what could be done. This nucleus, meeting at Joliet in November with President Haggard and Secretary Church, agreed that it would be futile to expect a committee to accomplish the assigned task if it had to meet hurriedly and with inevitable interruptions at the time of national conventions. Consequently it was planned to seek funds that would permit the proposed committee to hold meetings at such times and places as it might select, devoting its entire attention and energies to the task imposed upon it.

A request for funds to pay the expenses of the committee was made to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in a letter of which the following is a part:

"It proposes that the commission shall consist of members characterized by a thorough knowledge of conditions, both in secondary schools and in society at large, by interest in the philosophy of education, by independence of thought and judgment, and by imagination, initiative, and practicality; that it be small enough to permit of free exchange of opinion about a table—say ten or twelve mem-

bers—and that it hold annually two meetings of one week each until its assignment is accomplished and a practical program is fairly on its way. All previous committees, such as the Committee of Ten and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, have been severely handicapped by the necessity of holding meetings, usually at educational conventions, that were all too brief and interfered with by other duties. The results of such meetings are inevitably unsatisfactory.

"Among the duties of the proposed commission will be the following:

"First, to formulate the issues that are inherent in secondary education at the present time and, after considering the principles supporting each alternative and the facts of practice, to present the one that seems the better with the reasons for its approval for further discussion and approval by the Association.

"Second, to define the special functions of secondary education in the United States, and to present these in turn for popular approval after modification by the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

"Third, to consider all the facts assembled by the National Survey of Secondary Education, which has recently concluded its work, and utilize them along with the conclusions from the first two items of the agenda in formulating a practical program for advancing secondary education.

"Fourth, to ascertain what additional facts are necessary to be known and to stimulate their collection by either research or experimentation.

"Fifth, to outline means of popularizing the proposed program both with the profession and with the public.

"This is believed to be a peculiarly opportune time for undertaking such work as is proposed. Criticism of secondary education from many sources, some too authoritative to be neglected, has cumulated so as to disturb the

public and to bewilder the profession; the National Survey is ready to report numerous facts, which should be used; the depression is forcing economies, which without wise direction may be very harmful; lack of employment opportunities is forcing even larger numbers of youth into public high schools; and some fifteen years have passed since the latest national commission made a report.

"That an effective committee may be obtained it will be necessary to pay the expenses of the members for travel and for sustenance. It is estimated that the annual cost will be \$5000. Toward this sum the Department will be asked to contribute according to its means, but it will be necessary for carrying out the plan to find other resources. Therefore the nucleus committee asks the Carnegie Corporation to grant \$3000 annually for a period of three years for the expenses of the commission. It is believed by the committee that the returns from each year of the program will be abundantly justified so far as it goes, and that each year in addition will cumulate increasingly large values."

At its meeting in January the Executive Committee of the Foundation, on recommendation of President Frederick P. Keppel and of President Henry Suzzallo, of the Carnegie Corporation, generously granted a subsidy of \$9000, payable in three annual instalments, for the purposes stated.

Because the proposed committee represents this association, it is thought wise that the National Department of Secondary-School Principals bear a significant part of the expenses. I, therefore, on behalf of the nucleus committee request the appropriation annually for three years of \$2000, or such part as may be needed, to supplement the subsidy of the Carnegie Corporation for the payment of the expenses, including clerical assistance, of the proposed committee.

After taking counsel with many leaders in secondary education in all parts of the country, President W. W. Haggard has appointed the following committee, all of whom have accepted with full realization of the importance of the challenge,

of the high responsibility imposed, and of the prolonged labor that is involved.

Thomas H. Briggs, Chairman  
Professor of Education  
Teachers College, Columbia University  
New York, N. Y.

B. P. Fowler  
Headmaster, Tower Hill School  
Wilmington, Delaware

Arthur Gould  
Deputy Superintendent of Schools  
Los Angeles, California

Sidney B. Hall  
State Superintendent of Public Instruction  
Richmond, Virginia

Fred J. Kelly  
Chief, Division of Colleges and Professional Schools  
Office of Education  
Washington, D. C.

Rudolph D. Lindquist  
Director of the University School  
University of Ohio  
Columbus, Ohio

Francis T. Spaulding  
Professor of Education  
Harvard University  
Cambridge, Mass.

Milo H. Stuart  
Assistant Superintendent of Schools  
Indianapolis, Indiana

Curtis H. Threlkeld  
Principal of Columbia High School  
South Orange, N. J.

The first meeting will be held in April or May.

A motion was made and seconded asking that the Department appropriate \$2,000 annually for three years to supplement the Carnegie grant. Unanimously carried.

Principal R. L. Sandwick, of Dearfield-Shields Township High-School, Highland Park, Illinois, presented the following report:

### REPORT OF THE FINANCE COMMITTEE

Your Committee, together with the President of the Association, has been at considerable pains to inquire into the finances of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association. We have examined the audit made by the firm of Mariner & Hoskins, certified public accountants, which audit will be printed in full in the proceedings of this meeting. We have also examined the books of accounts and have noted the careful and efficient way in which these are kept; we have gone to the bank in which the securities of this Association are held and have examined these securities. We have even examined the properties on which the Association holds first mortgages, and in some instances have talked with the owners.

We have submitted to the Secretary-Treasurer a list of questions calling for detailed information as to sales and profits on services rendered to members of the Association. In fact, we have been painstaking to a degree in satisfying our curiosity as to the financial management. In all this we have had the coöperation and assistance of your Secretary-Treasurer. As a result we are convinced that the finances of the Association have been handled in a very satisfactory manner.

(Signed) R. L. SANDWICK,  
O. V. WALTERS.

Mr. President, I move the adoption of this report. The motion prevailed.



February 20, 1933.

To the Finance Committee,  
Department of Secondary-School Principals,  
National Education Association.

Gentlemen:

We have audited the books and records of the Treasurer of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association for the year ended December 21, 1932, and submit herewith our report consisting of "Exhibit A", a statement of cash receipts and disbursements, and "Exhibit B", a schedule of securities held.

Cash in bank amounting to \$962.90 was verified by direct correspondence with the depository.

Securities were produced for our inspection and found to be in order. During the year the following bonds:

Donald Cliff Apartment.....	\$2,000.00
The Elston-Central Park Building.....	1,000.00
Alamito Dairy Company.....	500.00
Northern Illinois Supply Company.....	500.00
	<hr/>
	\$4,000.00

were exchanged for:

The National High-School Orchestra Camp..	\$1,000.00
Peoria Service Company.....	3,000.00
	<hr/>
	\$4,000.00

During the year Tax Anticipation Warrants issued by the Cicero-Stickney Township High-School District No. 201 were received in payment of dues, insurance, etc., to the amount of \$474.80. Since the transactions involved no cash they are not included in our report.

In conducting our audit we examined the cash receipts and disbursements and made such other verifications as would determine the general accuracy of the books. Cash receipts were not verified beyond the office records. The books and

records of the Treasurer have been properly kept and are in good order.

Respectfully submitted,

MARINER & HOSKINS, INC.

By F. E. ROBERTS, C. P. A.,  
Treasurer.

REPORT OF TREASURER  
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
of the  
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION  
January 1, 1932, to December 31, 1932.

*Receipts*

Cash in Banks January 1,  
1932, per Audit Report:  
The First National Bank  
of Chicago .....  
In Treasury in Washington

\$ 1,387.96  
178.00

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\$ 1,565.96

Annual Dues from Members..\$ 4,630.51

Sale of Bulletins..... 774.87

Sale of Blanks..... 375.47

Honor Society Receipts..... 10,453.36

Consumers' Research Re-  
ceipts ..... 1,388.58

Interest on Bonds..... 706.25

Insurance Premiums ..... 5,004.52

Checks Outstanding Decem-  
ber 31, 1931, never paid.... 107.23

Adjust Bank Deposit Febru-  
ary, 1932, \$464.60 recorded

\$403.60 ..... 61.00 \$23,501.79 \$25,067.75

Less Funds in Treasury in  
Washington included in  
above receipts .....

178.00

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\$24,889.75

*Disbursements**Secretary's Office*

Postage .....	\$	945.30	
Printing .....		595.78	
Refund of Dues to Members..		67.00	
Clerical Services .....		3,530.38	
Supplies .....		73.36	
Equipment .....		27.26	
Drayage .....		1.00	
Security bond, Secretary.....		5.00	
Audit of Treasurer's Ac- counts .....		25.00	
Bank Charges ..		3.52	
Checks Returned by Bank Covering:			
Dues from Members .....		71.00	
Sale of Blanks .....		10.70	
Honor Society Receipts.....		5.75	
Consumer's Research Re- ceipts .....		9.00	
Insurance Premiums .....		29.25	
Refunded on Bulletin .....		7.60	
Subscriptions Consumer's Research .....		875.30	
Telephone .....		111.72	
Flowers .....		22.53	
Safety Deposit Vault Rental		3.00	
Insurance on Stock .....		62.00	\$ 6,481.45

*Honor Societies*

Engrossing Charters .....	192.75	
Equipment and Supplies .....	249.48	
Refunds of Charter Fees.....	15.95	458.18

*Bulletin No. 38*

Printing .....	758.87	
Postage (Second Mailing)....	7.16	766.03

*Bulletin No. 39*

Printing .....	569.05	
Postage .....	39.95	
Drayage .....	2.00	611.00

*Bulletin No. 40*

Printing .....	1,574.30	
Postage .....	57.61	
Drayage .....	2.00	1,633.91

*Bulletin No. 41*

Printing .....	253.44	
Postage .....	16.51	
Drayage .....	2.00	271.95

*Bulletin No. 42*

Printing .....	783.30	
Postage .....	36.77	820.07

*Bulletin No. 43*

Postage .....		31.15
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*Convention in Washington, D. C.*

President's expenses .....	\$ 89.38	
Secretary's expenses .....	106.78	
Clerical expense .....	38.47	234.63

*Minneapolis Convention*

President's expenses .....		52.35
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*Committee Meeting in Joliet, Ill.*

Expenses .....		128.94
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*Insurance*

Premiums Paid .....	4,492.21	
Premiums Refunded to Members .....	97.46	4,589.67

*Bonds*

National Music Camp Debenture Bond .....	\$ 1,000.00	
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Austin Park First Mortgage			
Gold Bond .....	500.00		
United States of America			
Fourth Liberty Loan .....	6,000.00		
Premium Paid on Fourth			
Liberty Loan .....	217.80		
Accrued Interest .....	129.72	7,847.52	\$23,926.85

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Cash in bank—December 31, 1932.....\$ 962.90

*Bank Reconciliation*

Balance per Bank Certification—December 31, 1932.....\$977.90

Deduct Outstanding Checks ..... 15.00

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Cash in Bank December 31, 1932, per Books.....\$962.90

REPORT OF TREASURER  
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
of the  
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

December 31, 1932

<i>Securities</i>		Interest in Default
The 934 Edgecomb Place Building No.		
211 6½%, due Aug. 1, 1935.....\$	500.00	\$ 48.75
First Mortgage Real Estate Gold Bond		
on Land and Building located at N. E.		
corner Austin Blvd. and Park Ave.,		
Cicero, Ill., 6% due Aug. 15, 1936,		
<i>Owners</i> —James E. Melich & Pauline		
Melich, No. 58.....	500.00	30.00
Nos. 61, 62, 63, 70 and 73.....	5,000.00	390.00
Leasehold Estate Gold Bond 6% due Jan.		
15, 1936, <i>Owners</i> —Gust Koclanes and		
Efstrateos Koclanes, Nos. 27, 31, 34,		
39, 40, 43, 44, 48, 49, 72.....	1,000.00	30.00
No. 101, 125 .....	1,000.00	30.00
The National High-School Orchestra		
Camp Association Debenture Bond 7%		

due Sept. 15, 1933, No. 178, 179, 201, 207 .....	2,000.00	
First Mortgage Gold Notes 6% due Aug. 24, 1934, <i>Owners</i> —James E. Melich and Pauline Melich, No. A, B, C.....	15,000.00	900.00
First Mortgage Gold Notes 6% due Aug. 10, 1932, <i>Owners</i> —Dominick Nemunis and Barbara Nemunis, No. A.....	3,000.00	180.00*
Alamito Dairy Company 6½% due May 1, 1936, No. D 52.....	500.00	32.50
Peoria Service Company 6½% First Mortgage Sinking Fund Gold Bond Se- ries A due June 1, 1939, No. M92, M137, M266 .....	3,000.00	
Presbyterian Church of Berwyn Real Es- tate Gold Bond 6% due Nov. 1, 1935, No. 22, 23, 24 .....	3,000.00	
The United States of America Fourth Liberty Loan Gold Bond 4¼ 1933-1938 No. J00117999, B01907012, K02698590, K 02868360, J 02868359, H 02865468, E 02005275, F 02005276, G 02005277....	9,000.00	
	<hr/>	
	\$43,500.00	
Less Fourth Liberty Loan purchased in February, 1933 .....	3,000.00	
	<hr/>	
Securities on Hand December 31, 1932....	\$40,500.00	

Principal M. R. McDaniel, of Oak Park and River Forest Township High-School, presented the following:

Resolved, That the Department of Secondary-School Principals believes that the type of maladministration which has been exhibited at the J. Sterling Morton High-School and Junior College (Cicero, Illinois) is so indefensible and harmful to the educational system of this country that it points out the desirability of immediate measures through state leg-

isolation or otherwise to make impossible the repetition of such practices as have been indulged in by the board of education of that school, or of any other school.

Carried.

Principal R. L. Butterfield, of Benjamin Franklin High-School, of Rochester, New York, presented the report of the Nominating Committee as follows:

*For President:* Robert C. Clem, Principal of Shawnee High-School, Louisville, Kentucky.

*For First Vice President:* Charles F. Allen, Supervisor of Secondary Education of Little Rock, Arkansas.

*For Second Vice President:* Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor of Secondary Education, Augusta, Maine.

*For Executive Committee:*

William E. Burkhead, Principal of Tilden Junior High-School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

D. A. Morgan, Principal of Shawnee Mission Rural High-School, Merriam, Kansas.

W. W. Haggard, Superintendent, Township High-School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois.

The report was unanimously adopted.

The following members were chosen as members of the National Council of the National Honor Society:

R. R. Cook, A. E. MacQuarrie and M. R. McDaniel.



NATIONAL COUNCIL MEETING  
MEETING OF NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE  
NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

Leamington Hotel, Minneapolis, Minnesota  
Sunday, February 26, 1933

The National Council met at 2:30 P. M. Present: Members Allen, McDaniel and Church. Absent: Members Baker, Brooks, Kepner, Plummer, Sieber and Wagner.

The terms of the following members of the National Council expire: McDaniel and Wagner. The following were nominated: Mrs. Lucy L. Wilson, South Philadelphia High-School for Girls, Pennsylvania; R. R. Cook, Roosevelt High-School, Des Moines, Iowa; Fred C. Mitchell, Classical High-School, Lynn, Massachusetts; A. E. MacQuarrie, Washburn High-School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; M. R. McDaniel, High-School, Oak Park, Illinois; Harry L. Upperman, Baxter Seminary, Baxter, Tennessee.

It was moved that a committee of three be appointed to consider the price of the National Honor emblems with the end of reducing the price and method of distribution.

On motion the Council adjourned.

## CONSTITUTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

### ARTICLE I—NAME

The name of this Department shall be the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

### ARTICLE II—AIM

The aim of this Department is to promote the interests of secondary education in America by giving a special consideration to the problems that arise in connection with the administration of secondary-schools.

### ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1—Membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of Active and Associate.

SECTION 2—All Principals of Secondary-Schools, namely Junior High-Schools, Senior High-Schools, and Junior Colleges, their administrative and executive assistants, Heads of Schools of Education in Normal Schools, Colleges, and Universities, together with Professors teaching Secondary Education therein and Secondary-School Representatives of State Education Departments, who are also members of the N. E. A., shall be eligible to Active Membership upon payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$2.00. Active members shall have the privilege of voting.

SECTION 3—Members of State Organizations of Secondary-School Principals shall be eligible to Associate Membership of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, as a group, by the payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$1.00.\*

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\*Note: This clause shall become inoperative as soon as the respective state organizations can work out provisions for enlisting their membership as active members of this department.

SECTION 4—All others engaged in Secondary Education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible to Associate Membership upon payment to the Secretary, of the annual fee of \$1.00.

SECTION 5—All members both Active and Associate shall receive all publications of the Department.

#### ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1—Officers of this Department shall be a President, First Vice-President, Second Vice-President, and Executive Secretary, who shall be the executive officer of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2—The Executive Committee shall consist of these officers, the retiring President, and two members of the Department. The Executive Committee shall be representative of Junior High-Schools, Senior High-Schools and Junior Colleges.

#### ARTICLE V

SECTION 1—The president shall, in advance of the annual meeting, ask each of the state associations of the Department of Secondary-School Principals to name a representative who shall then be appointed by the president as a member of the nominating committee.

SECTION 2—The nominating committee so constituted shall meet at the annual meeting, elect a chairman, and prepare a list of candidates for the several offices.

SECTION 3—Eighteen members shall constitute a quorum with not less than three from each of the following regional associations of colleges and secondary-schools: New England Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools, the Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, the Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools of the Southern States, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools, the Northwest Association

of Secondary and Higher Schools, and the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools. Any lack in the representation herein provided shall be filled by nomination from the floor.

SECTION 4—The executive secretary shall be appointed by the executive committee.

SECTION 5—The president shall appoint, subject to the approval of the executive committee, two members who shall with the executive secretary constitute a board of finance who shall act in the capacity of trustees, have custody of the funds of the Department, have same properly audited, and submit annually a report to the Department.

#### ARTICLE VI—MEETINGS

SECTION 1—The Department of Secondary-School Principals shall hold two meetings yearly. The regular annual meeting to be held at the time and place of the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association.

SECTION 2—The second meeting of the Department shall be held at the time and place of the annual summer meeting of the National Education Association.

#### ARTICLE VII—AMENDMENTS

The Constitution may be amended by a majority vote of those present and voting at the annual mid-winter meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Department thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Department.

## APPENDIX

## PIONEERS, O PIONEERS

THOMAS H. BRIGGS,  
Teachers College, Columbia University.

Frontiers have been the wealth, the opportunity, and the luring hope of America. While the conservative and the fearful hugged the contented fireside and worshiped the ancient Lares and Penates in static safety, pioneers pushed out into the unexplored wilds, across the Appalachians, over the prairies, scaled the Rocky Mountains, and finally were stopped by the immensity of the Pacific ocean.

"Not for delectations sweet,

Not the cushion and the slipper, not the peaceful and the studious,

Not the riches safe and palling, not for them the tame enjoyment,

Pioneers, O Pioneers!"

Was it seeking or escape that drove these early pioneers away from comforts and friends and established conventions out into the unknown? What were they seeking? What were they escaping? It pleases us to stress the impelling ideals for religious or political or social freedom, but it is likely that failure, unhappiness, and restlessness were quite as much a cause of their pushing out from settled conditions. Many of the pioneers doubtless moved from the Atlantic seaboard for escape rather than for opportunity; but those who are most significant for us must have had a vision of the great dream, must have felt in their veins the tingling blood of democracy, must have chanted in their hearts,

"We the youthful sinewy races, all the rest on us depend."  
They wanted to be free, to discover new opportunities to make a new world—even for those who stayed behind.

These latter viewed with mixed feelings the adventurous pioneers. Some doubtless envied them, wishing that they too had the hardihood and the courage to break the accustomed bonds and seek a new world. But others felt pity and contempt rather than envy. "This is good enough for us," they said, though unperceived changed conditions had already put hopelessly out of date the traditions of the old world and of old time. "There's nothing there. They will come back." But on the possibility that something *might* be there they grubstaked the pioneers and waited, equally ready to reproach the failures or to profit from their successes. Human nature is remarkably constant through all the ages.

Whatever the motive that sent him forth, however difficult the plunge into unexplored wildernesses, however exhilarating the discovery of new frontiers, what the pioneer did when he got there is a pathetic and tragic illustration of the inadequacy of man unprepared for new conditions to utilize them for the realization of his dream. Without perceiving that a new world demands new conventions, the pioneer as a rule endeavored to make the frontier as nearly like the community that he had left as possible. Many a top hat and frock coat were worn in the wilderness, worn with pride until the stern necessities of new conditions made them ridiculous, and then were carefully put away until the opportune time when the new world should become like the old. It was hard for Yancey Cravat to see that his silk "beaver" was neither appropriate nor useful in either the civilization that he had left or in the one that he was helping to make.

But changes in the physical were easy to perceive in comparison with those in the intellectual or spiritual world. The coonskin cap replaced the silk hat long before the pioneer had any suspicion that the old forms of education were equally useless for the needs of his children. The Latin Grammar School was desired and imitated even though conditions in England had already made it an anachronism. The pioneer may have had his ideal, but usually he was inadequate to provide the machinery to achieve it. He said that he would set up

schools to train religious and political leaders, but he imitated the institutions that could produce only theologians and grammarians. The form never insures the spirit.

And then came another tragedy. When the traditional form failed to achieve the ideal, faith in both the form and the ideal tended to weaken. There was an indiscriminating abandoning of both, with a resulting handicap to the progress of the new civilization that had been the goal of all the danger and labor and privation and sacrifice. The ideals were distinctly higher than those they had replaced. There was good in some of the old machinery if the pioneer had only been discriminating enough to see it and strong enough to adapt and preserve it. Discrediting and largely abandoning the old machinery, the pioneer set himself to slog ahead at making a physical living, as if the new civilization had no demands of its own and as if the old would never catch up. It never did—entirely; but parts of it he retained and other parts were brought by the recurrent waves of less hardy followers. And then the children were found skeptical that any of the old was worth possessing or worth seeking and lacking in a vision of the new. Would there had been far-sighted and persevering leaders in those days!

The result of all this was that the unique advantages of the frontier so far as they pertained to a civilization adapted to new conditions were largely lost. When new conditions are met all men are by training, by habituation to old conditions, more or less equal. They become unequal and some gain a great advantage by recognizing that the situation is different, by analyzing it to find the new opportunities and the challenge, by fertility in inventing new ways of using the former to meet the latter, by quickly and certainly testing them and selecting those that give the greater satisfactions, and by open-minded readiness to adopt for use the best program of action. But all this assumes one essential, a comprehensive set of ideals, a vision of the world that is desired to be.

I have dwelt so long on the pioneer of our physical America not merely because he was picturesque and important in



the development of our country, but because his career is so precisely paralleled by the pioneer of every kind in every time. The geographical frontier has largely been gone since the early nineties, but we are no less to-day on a new frontier of ideas, a frontier created by social, industrial, economic, and political changes. This frontier can never be closed. Whenever and wherever there are a changing world and changing ideals of life there will be new frontiers. Every advance of whatever kind pushes out new fringes of civilization. It will be a sad day in our history when we catch up with ourselves, when in complacency we consolidate a permanent life, beyond which the rest of the world will inevitably advance, leaving us a moldering relic of the past.

The physical frontier had to be sought; the new frontier envelopes us regardless of volition or of action. The former was easier to find, however, than the latter is to perceive. The former was our potential wealth, our opportunity, and our hope; the latter is the only world in which we have to live. We must recognize it for what it is and devise means of making it what it should be—or we are undone. Again, "We the youthful sinewy races, all the rest on us depend."

It is always a tragedy that the pioneer finds it so difficult to recognize and to analyze the wholeness of a new situation. He is too close to it, too involved in it, too busy with routine and detailed things, too obsessed by the idea that he must identify fragments of the new with the wholeness of the old, too eager to use the worn keys on the ring that he has carefully preserved. He seldom even perceives the necessity of understanding the new complex. Instead, he seeks or demands or vaguely hopes for some specific that is immediate and final, as if that could ever exist. He will grasp for any definite device, however minor it may be, that promises to "work" for the instant need; but he is slow to be concerned with a program that is suitable for the whole complicated need, especially a program that involves the remote and dimly perceived. No one more than the pioneer needs leadership. "Nothing ever happened in the world as prophets and leaders wished it to do,"

sagely remarked George Simmel, "but without prophets and leaders it would not have happened at all." Never more than now has the pioneer needed leadership that is far-sighted, that, envisaging the whole, goes to the bottom of things to build a solid foundation for a brave new structure to house the new world of a new civilization.

"Oh, how I wish that some cold wise man  
Would dig beneath the surface which is scraped,  
Deal with the depths."

A difficulty in our confusion is to know who the true leaders are. On every hand we hear proposed foolish specifics, ranging from defunct old fashions to ephemeral invention. But we need to listen with patience and to consider sympathetically as well as critically the proposals of everyone who thinks himself a seer and a leader. Any one may have seized upon and understood a part of the complex that we have ignored as insignificant. Each one has certainly seen a part, if not the whole, from a different point of view that may have revealed values hidden from others. He may have blundered, in that inexplicable way that human beings have the habit of doing, upon the beginnings of the very plan that wise men have fumbled for and failed to find. He may be able to give a clue, the mere suggestive end of a string that will lead others on more rationally to a comprehending plan.

After all suggestions are sympathetically and critically considered, after all clues are followed by intelligent imaginative and constructive reflection, there must come a synthesis based on broad and deep understanding of the phenomena of the new and still changing frontier. Such a synthesis can be made only by our best minds, chosen for competence and devoted to the all important task. Their work must be inspired by the constant ideals of our nation, ideals purified from the contaminations of selfishness and illuminated again for the devoted acceptance of all the people. And after the program that education is to follow for achieving these ideals is formulated, it will be tried in the crucible of public opinion, which though uncertain and variable is an essential of democracy. Un-

less the people are informed and approve, no program can have stability or promise of permanent success.

The nature and extent of the social, political, and economic changes that have brought a new frontier can only be suggested here. They are too important and too numerous to be discussed or even to be listed in their entirety. We do not know them in their entirety yet; we do not fully understand those that we perceive. But we have a world vastly extended by the inventions of communication and of transportation; we have a marvelous decrease of physical isolation as cities have grown and as good roads facilitate travel; we have a paradoxical weakening of social ties as men live closer together but with less sympathy and sense of responsibility for each other; we have a weakening of home influences as divorce increases, as both parents are increasingly away on business or pleasure, and as other agencies have with less success taken over responsibilities for the children; we have the tragic breakdown of the urban Protestant and Jewish churches; we have changed and changing mores that approve what was formerly condemned and that scorn what was once sacred; we have a new standard for ethical character, vague perhaps but assuredly different; we have politics that wander selfishly and ineffectively for the public good in the new clearings of the wilderness; we have specialization in industry that demands a revolution in training; we have potency of production by machinery that insures not only plenty for all wants but leisure that needs direction; we have a host of means of occupying leisure time with a demand for minimum activity and with a paucity of beneficent results; and we have the vast organization of an unparalleled school system negligibly concerned with any of these important phenomena. These are but illustrations of the conditions which confront us on the new frontier, conditions that we can by no means escape. We must understand them individually and as parts of the hierarchy of modern civilization, understand them and adapt our education to make the best possible out of them.

We have been critical of the pioneer on the geographic frontiers of our country. However, unless we learn from his

neglect of opportunity how wisely to act on the new frontier of ideas, we shall be even more severely criticized by generations to come. We need first of all to understand the changes that have come, some of them gradually, a few with appalling suddenness, in this maelstrom of life in which we find ourselves. We need to understand far more than the cold figures of machine production or even the accumulated data of the sociologists. Their significance, their threat, and their promise challenge our intelligence. We must understand their significances and plan to change the frontier or to adapt our lives to them so that more happiness will come to all our people. It is easy to smile at the early pioneer who stodgily and stubbornly hoped to reproduce the past; it is difficult but imperative that we abandon his vain hope of restoring "the good old days" and set ourselves to finding what we can make of the good new days. They are all that we shall have.

It should be obvious to the most cursive and superficial thinker, however, that understanding of the social mutations will not be sufficient. No one can plan wisely unless he has a goal that he wishes to reach. "The American dream" has, unfortunately and tragically, become vague and to many of those who boast of citizenship it has never become a permanent and moving vision of the goal toward the achievement of which all effort, all sacrifice must be directed. The dream of a people made free by opportunity for every one to achieve the best that is possible in him, but then to insure that same differentiated opportunity, whatever it may be, to all others, and co-operatively to live in harmony and mutual respect with varied developments still going on—this is the dream that we preserve from the past and that still inspires passionate devotion in those who have never taken their eyes from the pillar of cloud by day and the pillar of fire by night. Unless all of our people accept and devotedly seek this ideal of the new frontier we shall more and more bend the knee to Baal and wander from democracy.

Understanding of the complex new phenomena, then, important and difficult as it is, will be significant only if it furnishes the materials out of which we may build toward the

ideal. And that building can be done chiefly, I almost go so far as to say only, by the public schools. However much they have failed of ideal accomplishment in the past, they remain our only means of salvation for the future. Their failure, to which may be attributed most of the woes that now harass us, should be blamed mostly on a public that got what they demanded while eagerly and, in a large sense, blindly seeking to reproduce the details of an outmoded civilization on a new frontier. Education, even at its worst, has more than the public kept the vision of democracy. But when it attempted seriously to achieve it, teachers ran into somebody's block-house of social traditions, somebody's industrial stockade, or somebody's political barbwire. Driven back by guns from the defenses of selfishness, the schools have been less and less able to inspire the younger generations with the vision of what might be, the vision of what must be for a successful democracy.

And yet education is being blamed. Both attempting and accomplishing more than the general public has seriously wanted, the schools are now the target for criticism as unfair as it is virulent. The rich who would lighten their burden of taxation employ or encourage popular writers to emphasize every dereliction of duty, every defect of program, and every apparent extravagance. Education has no apology for towers, marble corridors, swimming pools, and stadia, however much it would like to have now for more important things the money that they cost. They were what the people wanted. They came along with gold domes on court houses, limousines for sheriffs, monster "memorial" auditoriums, and luxury in every home. I suspect that they still have a reasonable defense. But they are not the weakest joint in our armor. Neither is that rare teacher who complained that she couldn't go to Bermuda because her salary was cut, nor that high-school with too many janitors, nor that superintendent who was convicted of crime—all being falsely indicated as "typical." The point of vulnerability is that education has not seriously and consistently and courageously and persistently sought to convince the public that the schools alone can keep the eyes of each oncoming generation firmly fixed on the one great goal of democracy.

It is human nature to seek something to blame. It is the nature of little and of selfish men to make petty and physical changes without seeking and planning to eradicate the real causes of trouble and without preparing a constructive program that will lead to great accomplishment in the future. History tells instance after instance of our pioneer forefathers, resentful of conditions that had developed because of their short sighted selfishness, laying about with a stick at every head that showed itself, even at those that had to be used for remedying their woes. Have we learned nothing from history? If the schools have not been wiser than the public, if anticipating needs they have not gone beyond popular approval and prevented social, economic, and political ills, shall the public now destroy or weaken the only instrument it has for bringing about what it wants? Blame we are sure to have, mounting and unfair criticism we assuredly must be prepared to meet. It is only reasonable to expect all school men and women to coöperate in all necessary economy and in remedying conditions that for any reason are bad. But we shall not manifest professional competence unless at the same time we keep before the public mind the essential fact that education is the one and only means for training the younger generations to accept and effectively to live by the program that this generation must prepare.

And the planning of such a program we must forward both as educational leaders and as citizens. I am not so foolish as to think that any and every individual schoolmaster should forthwith set out in his classroom to reform society. Nor am I so foolish as to imagine that a society without a plan can permanently succeed, to say nothing of progressing. Although the public has basked in that illusion, it has been battered by the events of the past few years into a readiness to accept leadership toward anything that promises amelioration. The individual schoolmaster can do something to induce an acceptance of a program of planning for achieving the dream of democracy on the new frontier; but he needs direction and support. And both can be given by our great educational organizations. If the National Educational Association, with its numerous and potent departments, and the state associations will concentrate



their strength on this necessity of planning a program, which education must be used to make effective, it already has an enlisted army of the superior minds of the nation to popularize and to promote an appreciation of the need in every community of our country. But before education can be made effective the people, or at least their leaders, must agree on what they want and thus be prepared to support the work of the schools on the new frontier.

The elementary schools are already so organized that the introduction of a coöperating plan will be relatively easy. The problem and the greater opportunity will lie in the secondary-schools, which are conceived as embracing both the junior high-school and the junior college. It is in this period that the intellect has developed so that more than average understanding is possible, and it is in this period that the necessary emotional approval and stimulus to devoted action can be developed. Elementary education can lay the foundation and furnish the simpler tools, but it is secondary education that must be used to make effective the great program or any major part of it for achieving the ideals adopted for national prosperity and happiness.

The achievements of our secondary-schools are great and not to be deprecated. Their possibilities are far greater and must be seriously and strenuously sought. We in the United States have accepted the ideal, unique in the whole world, of providing a secondary education appropriate to the needs of every youth. This ideal is not likely to be abandoned, primarily because it is intertwined with the roots of democracy, but also because, as I have elsewhere pointed out, there is nothing else that society can do with youth but educate him. Already we have about half our youth in secondary-schools, and the fraction must inevitably increase. But the appropriate education, varying far beyond the accustomed limits, we have yet to provide for the great number who have neither the competence nor the need for traditional course. The effort to force them upon all youth results in waste not only of time and money but of the far more important opportunity to make the secondary-schools contribute largely and



vitality to the welfare of the nation and the happiness of its people. The new education must begin with and consistently continue to seek the good of the supporting society.

Although criticism and restricted budgets are uncomfortable, I am inclined to think that they are by no means wholly bad for secondary education at the present time. If we are competent professionally, they will compel a franker appraisal of our own work than we are accustomed to give, a seeking to understand the new frontier on which we are living, the construction of a program that will prepare every youth according to his aptitudes and capacities for its needs, and then a bold and continuous campaign to interpret this program to the people. Every individual schoolman and woman should accept this professional challenge and devote such intellectual powers as he has to understanding and to invention. Then in professional organizations they will find the place to evaluate contributed ideas and the strength to put on adopted program convincingly before the people.

We are indeed on a new frontier. As the old has moved back, many of its needs have gone. As the new has moved up, many new needs have come. Have we the vision to see conditions as they are, the wisdom to interpret them for their true significances, the high dream to indicate the goal toward which they should move, the ability to plan for an educational program that will utilize the facts to achieve the dream, and the strength not only to endure criticism and privations but also to carry on, always on, until we have made the public see too and when convinced accept the coöperative responsibility? This is the challenge that we have on the new frontier. It involves more than pedagogical improvements of traditional classics. It means creating a new civilization suited to the new frontier and intelligently using the schools as the most potent means of progress. It means that the schoolmaster will no longer be the petty tyrant of the ferrule or the sympathetic guide through the mazes of inherited tradition. Instead, with eyes fixed on the high goal, with mind comprehending and approving the comprehensive program for prog-

ress, you will apply your strength to the making of a brave new world good for all who live in it.

“Not for delectations sweet,

Not the cushion and the slipper, not the peaceful and the studious,

Not the riches safe and palling, not for you the tame enjoyment.

Pioneers, O Pioneers!”

